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ABSTRACT

These proceedings contain the following 14 papers: "Relationship between the Training Needs of Sales/Marketing Trainers and Their Career Stages" (Isaac B. Owolabi); "A Report of a Marketing Education Professional Development Activity to Provide Training for Teachers in the Use of the Nominal Group Technique" (Stephen R. Lucas, Benton E. Miles); "The Perceptions of Secondary, Marketing Education Students Regarding Ethical Behavior in Business" (Ralph D. Wray, Rodney Davis); "A Research Study on Current Advertising Strategies Used by Certified Public Accountants" (William Cooper, Lawrence Gulley, Benton E. Miles); "A Study of Texas Banks to Determine Business Plan Components for the Entrepreneur Planning to Start a Small Business" (Jerry W. Moorman, Cynthia G. Hess); "Perceived Benefits of Being a State DECA (Distributive Education Clubs of America) Officer" (Don E. McNelly, Gary Searle); "Researching the Need for Computer-Aided Curriculum Planning for Pennsylvania Marketing Education Teachers" (D. Frank Palmieri, John W. Schell, Lee Miles); "Job Satisfaction of Secondary Marketing Educators in Northwest Ohio" (Robert G. Berns); "The Use of Videotape to Increase Student Productivity" (Sharon Saenz); "Marketing Education for Marina Operators" (Allan J. Worms, Carolyn L. Worms); "Accessibility to and Enrollment in Secondary Business and Marketing Education" (Michael J. Littman); "The Training of Teachers as Advisors" (Michael Barry); "Marketing Educators' Readiness to Improve Students' Reasoning Skills: Report of an Exploratory Study" (Robert L. Fritz); "An Assessment of Instructor Behaviors in a Graduate Satellite Entrepreneurship Course" (LeVene A. Olson). Each paper includes an abstract. (KC)

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Marketing Education

National Research Conference Report 1989

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MARKETING EDUCATION NATIONAL

RESEARCH CONFERENCE

April 14-15-16, 1989

The University of West Florida

Pensacola, Florida

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INTRODUCTION

The National Research Conference for Marketing Education is the outgrowth of many discussions by marketing teacher educators attending annual professional meetings. The marketing teacher-educators consistently expressed a need for a research conference that would provide a forum for presenting research findings to the educators and other audiences interested in marketing education. The marketing teacher-educators also expressed a concern for nurturing those new professionals entering the field of teacher education. While the initial organization and planning for this annual event is attributed to a few seasoned Marketing teacher educators from the South, the annual conference has become the highlight of the year for the professional development and rejuvination of teacher-educators from states throughout the nation.

This conference has provided many teacher educators with opportunities to present research, publish, and learn new techniques and methods of research. Marketing teacher-educators are in agreement concerning the need for this type conference and the need to keep it as a single purpose meeting and an annual event. The 1990 research conference will be held in Georgia in mid-April. The sponsoring universities will be Auburn University, University of Georiga, and another to be announced.

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RESEARCH REPORTS

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE TRAINING NEEDS OF SALES/MARKETING TRAINERS AND THEIR CAREER STAGES.

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ABSTRACT

The career stage theorists indicate that what one wants and needs from a job will depend on the person's particular career situation--that is, the jobs they have held, their current position, and the direction in which they are moving. There is a lack of empirical information on the relationship between a sales/marketing trainer's career, changing patterns of developmental tasks, roles and training needs, which emerge as he/she matures in a career. The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between the training needs of sales/marketing trainers and their career stages. The conclusions of the study support some relationship between sales/marketing trainers competencies critical to success and their stage of career development.

INTRODUCTION

People's careers are characterized by changing patterns of developmental tasks, activities, values, and needs which emerge as they mature in a job. Similarly, training needs of individuals change and evolve as they move from one stage to another (Cron & Slocum, 1986). However, there has been an absence of research on the changing training needs of trainers in sales/marketing as they move through their careers.

Honeycutt et al. (1987) confirmed that the field of sales training had not changed much from what Henderson (1980, p. 5) described as having "...received little attention from researchers and educational institutions." Furthermore, research, primarily in the areas of humanpower analyses, personnel management, labor relations, or general management, tends to deal with economic or managerial roles while avoiding the specific functional areas involving training techniques and practices, particularly in sales training.

In academic research, increased attention has been focused on how people change over time and how such change affects their job performance (Hall & Mansfield, 1975; Mount 1984). Cron and Slocum (1986) investigated the influence of career stages on salespeoples' job attitudes, work perceptions, and performance. They found that salespeople's career stages are related to job attitudes, work perceptions,and performance. Other investigators have examined how individuals'

work-related perceptions and attitudes vary across career stages (Slocum Jr. & Cron, 1985; Stumpf & Rabinowitz, 1981). Others found that major issues, tasks, challenges, and needs are associated with each career stage (Cron, 1984; Cron & Slocum, 1986; Erickson, 1968; Gould, 1978; Hall, 1976; Schein, 1980; Stumpf & Rabinowitz,1981; Super & Bohn, 1970; Viega, 1983). In addition, researchers agree that career stage affects job attitudes and performances (London, 1983; Rhodes & Doering, 1983; Sonnenfeld & Kotter, 1982). However, a lack of information exists about the relationship between a sales/marketing trainer's career, changing patterns of developmental tasks, activities, and values and the training needs which emerge as he/she matures in a job. Research on other professional careers (e.g., professional managers, engineers, salespersons, and scientists) suggests that an understanding of how adults change may be very important for increasing productivity and performance (Dalton, Thompson, & Price, 1977; Ference, Stoner, & Warren, 1977).

The four stages studied for the purpose of the study include: Exploration, Establishment, Maintenance and Decline. People at exploration stage tend to shift jobs more frequently and have a greater propensity to relocate and leave their present employer if it means promotion. Establishment stage comprises a major portion of an individual's early organization/socialization process. It includes stabilizing oneself and establishing a secure place in the organization. At the

maintenance state there is a concern for doing something new, but the people are reluctant to move between companies for both family and professional reasons. The decline stage of career development is when someone prepares for retirement and begins to disengage from both the organization and the occupation.

PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

Today, colleges and universities provide only a portion of education entities in the United States. The resource commitment outside traditional education is estimated to be about "$30 billion or half of the estimated $65 billion spent in 1980 for traditional higher education" (Craig and Evans, 1981, p. 29). So businesses and industries invest billions of dollars in employee training to meet economic and social demands. Much of this is in sales/marketing training. As Lee (1987) found, American organizations budgeted $32 billion for training in 1987, with expectations that 38.8 million workers would receive 1.2 billion hours of training. Much of this, he noted, was for sales/marketing training. "Of all organizations with 50 or more employees, 32.7 percent would provide training of some type for salespeople during 1987" (page 51).

As employee training becomes a more important factor in the industrial enterprise, trainers' training needs should not be neglected as they may differ from one career stage to another. This study was designed to investigate the possible

relationship between the training needs of sales/marketing trainers and their career stages.

The central question of the study was: Is there a relationship between perceived training needs of sales/marketing trainers and stages of career development? In specific terms, this study addressed the following questions:

1. Is there a relationship between the sales/marketing trainers' competencies which are critical to success and their stage of career development?
2. Is there a relationship between sales/marketing trainers' roles and their stage of career development?
3. Within each of these stages what competencies are more important to each stage--i.e., are some competencies more critical (highly rated) to sales/marketing trainers' success at different stages than at others?

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this section the following will be discussed: (1) instrumentation, (2) reliability and validity, (3) the population and sample for the study, (4) data collection and (5) data analysis.

Instrumentation

The survey instrument contained questions addressing

three separate constructs: trainers' training needs, career stage, demographics.

Trainers' Training Needs

The review of the available literature revealed various methods used in the past to identify trainers' needs. In 1983, however, the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) sponsored a national study in which 15 roles and 31 competencies were identified for trainers without regard to the type of business or industry (McLagan, 1983). These 15 roles and 31 competencies were modified slightly and used in this study as measures of trainers' training needs.

Of the 15 key roles, respondents were asked to specify the percentage of time spent in performing some/all of the activities with the total not to exceed 100 percent. The 31 competencies were operationally defined on a six-point Likert-type scale. A rating of 1, "unrelated to success in current position," and a rating of 6, "critical to success in current position," identified the respondent's perception of the importance of a particular competency in his/her current stage of career development.

Career Stage

To measure a person's career stage, the Career Concerns Inventory (CCI), adult form, modified by Super, Linderman, and Thompson (1985) was used. This is a self-report inventory

focusing on awareness of and concern with career development tasks.

In this study, the respondents were asked to indicate the task and life stages with which they were presently most concerned. Concern for the task was operationally defined on a five-point Likert-type scale. A rating of 1, ("I have not yet thought seriously about that") indicated that the issue had not yet been a concern, while a 5 ("No longer a concern") indicated that the issue had been addressed in the past. A rating of 3, ("A growing concern at the present time") indicated that the issue was of current concern.

The 60-item inventory yielded 12 subscales that were factorily independent. According to Super, et al (1985), the 60-item inventory yields 12 subscales, such as (a) crystallization, (b) specification, (c) implementation, (d) stabilizing, (e) consolidating, (f) advancement, (g) holding, (h) updating, (i) innovating, (j) decelerating, (k) retirement planning, and (l) retirement living. Super, et al (1985) concluded that the twelve subscales are factorily independent because their study showed that the first three subscales characterized individuals in the exploration stage. The next three subscales characterized individuals in the establishment stage, and the last three subscales typified the individuals in the decline stage.

Demographics

Additional sections on demographics, educational background, employment information, and career development inventory were created to provide the researcher with the profile of the respondents.

Reliability and Validity

The preliminary instrument used in this study was developed by Super, et al (1981) and has been the career development inventory (CDI), used with related samples of professionals and found to be reliable and valid (Hall, 1983; Slocum & Cron, 1985 and 1986). In addition, this instrument was administered twice with two-week intervals to 31 adult students in business and marketing education programs. All are/were involved in training. The instrument was administered twice in order to establish "test-retest reliability." Of thirty-one (31) questionnaires mailed, twenty-five (25) useable responses were received for the analysis. Using the Pearson formula, the correlation coefficient for the test and retest scores was 0.7967.

The Population and Sample for the Study

The population for this study was comprised of 2,000 sales and marketing national members of ASTD as contained in the 1987 membership directory. A random sample of 300 was drawn from the population using a table of random numbers. The assumption made was that subjects who received the ques-

tionnaires were, because of their membership in the society, seriously involved in sales/marketing training activities. Drawing the data from the membership of the ASTD alone precluded representation of a broader population.

Data Collection

The data were collected by mailing questionnaires to the sample of sales/marketing trainers. Mautz and Neumann (1970) have stated that response rates for mail questionnaires may range from 13 percent to 75 percent. In order to improve the response rate, the design and mailing of the questionnaire was fashioned according to Dillmann (1978). In particular, attention was directed to choosing an easy first question, the logical ordering of questions, formulating the pages, establishing a vertical flow, providing directions for how to answer, and transitioning for continuity. Dillman believes that the inclusion of these methods will increase the number of usable responses.

In addition to two separate mailings of questionnaires to the sample, two follow-up postcards were sent. The first batch of questionnaires were mailed, followed by a post card a week later. A month later, the second batch of questionnaires was mailed to the respondents, followed by a postcard one week later. Of three hundred (300) questionnaires mailed, three percent were returned undeliverable or damaged. The total possible number of respondents was 291. One hundred and

forty-nine (51.2 percent) were received for the analysis. Lin, in Rawls and Fatunsin (1985), noted that "a 50 percent response rate is normal for questionnaire surveys and that this return is adequate for drawing inference from the data." Although mail questionnaires are valuable research tools because of efficiency, reach, and anonymity, unfortunately, non-response bias could be an issue of great concern to the researcher.

Four weeks after the mailing of the last follow-up post card, 20 of the non-respondents (14 percent) were randomly selected and called on the phone. Of this sample, four could not be reached or declined to answer. Eight of the non-respondents completed the telephone interview. Although this number was too small for statistical analysis, it does appear that the non-respondents' answers were similar to the respondents'.

Data Analysis

Analysis of data for this research project was carried out using inferential statistics. The initial step was to gather the raw data from the instrument that was administered and then present the information in a manner that gave order to the data (Sellers, 1977). The next step was to categorize sales/marketing trainers into one of the four career stages on the basis of their average score across the 15 questions, closest to a value of three. A three indicates a person's current career stage (Super, et al, 1981). Scores were

obtained for each career issue by summing the ratings for all items for that issue and calculating a mean score (Slocum & Cron, 1985). Of the fifteen items (questions) associated with each stage, scores were obtained for each career issue by summing the ratings for all items for that issue and calculating a mean score (Slocum & Cron, 1985). The pattern of each sales/marketing trainer to responses were also examined to ensure that it was consistent with the career-stage framework (Super, et al, 1981).

A one-way ANOVA was computed using career stage as a grouping variable versus the 31 competencies to address the first research question. Scheffe's test was utilized to compare any possible contrasts. This is a post-hoc test, which was necessary in order to investigate all possible contrasts, "not just pair-wise contrasts" (Howell, 1982, p. 303).

To address the second research question a one-way ANOVA was computed using career stage as a grouping variable versus mean percentage of time spent in the 15 key roles identified in the literature review. Again, the Scheffe's test was used post hoc for the comparisons.

Review of available related literature indicated trainers' training needs could be analyzed by assigning a rank order of priority based on the total item score of trainers' competencies. In order to determine critical competencies, the third research question, Crawford's (1967) ranking procedure to

identify "critical tasks" was used. In her study, tasks were rated on a five-point Likert Scale, 5 being "most important;" 1 being "least important." The responses were organized into the following categories: "most important" (4.50 or over), "very important" (3.50-4.49); "important" (2.50-3.49); "less important" (1.50-2.49); "not important" (1.49 or under).

In this study competencies were rated on a six-point Likert Scale, 6 being "critical to success in current position;" 1 being "unrelated to success in current position." A six-point scale was chosen to reduce the problems of central tendency on scales.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section contains the summary of the findings and discussion. Each of the three research questions are paraphrased, followed by a brief discussion of the findings and supporting evidence from the literature review.

Research Question One

This question addressed the relationship between sales and marketing trainers' competencies and their stages of career development. The complete results of the analysis are shown in Table 1. A graphic summary is presented in Figure I. These data suggest there is a relationship between a sales/marketing trainer's stage of career development and competencies critical to that stage. There is support for the theory that as individuals progress through distinctive stages

in their organizational career, distinct developmental training needs emerge for the individual at each stage (Cron, 1984; Feldman, 1976; Hall, 1976; and Schein, 1968).

The trainers in Stage I (Exploration) identified competency identification skills, cost benefit analysis, delegation skills, facilities skills, intellectual versatility, performance observation skills and records management skills as more critical to success in Stage I than in any other stage of career development.

At the Stage II (Establishment), cost-benefit analysis, facilities skills, industry understanding, and records management skills did not differ significantly from Stage I (Exploration). This was the second stage of Super's model (1957), as well as the Cron (1984) and Cron and Slocum, Jr. (1986) models. This stage was considered to comprise a major portion of an individual's early organizational socialization process (Feldman, 1976 & Katz, 1980).

For those trainers in Stage III (Maintenance), career development knowledge, feedback skills, and skills in futuring were more critical to success than for trainers in other stages. Like trainers in Stage I, cost-benefit analysis was more critical to success in Stage III than Stage IV (Decline). Understanding adult learning was considered more critical to success for trainers in Stage III and Stage IV than for trainers in Stages I or II.

Career development is essential in Stage III because emphasis now shifts to maintaining what one has achieved (Super et al., 1957). Slocum, Jr. and Cron (1985) agreed with Super that sales and marketing trainers were well settled in their life cycle and career pattern. The sales and marketing trainers at the decline stage considered counseling skills and the understanding of adult learning as more important to their career than did trainers in other stages. Sales and marketing trainers at the decline stage can serve as models for others in the organization. Most of the employees/subordinates will look up to them for advice about the organization and their jobs. Thus, counseling and understanding of adult learning would be appropriate in that career stage.

Table 1 and Figure I
about here

Research Question Two

Research question two addressed the relationship between sales/ marketing trainers' roles as defined by ASTD and their stages of career development. The complete results of the ANOVA are shown in Table 2. These data suggests that there is a relationship between a sales/marketing trainer's stage of career development and roles assumed by the trainer. Specifically, time actually spent in four of the fifteen roles was significantly different across the stages of career development. These data provide modest support for the career stage

theory which indicates that individuals progress through distinctive stages in their organizational careers, and each stage has distinct developmental needs for the individuals.

Table 2 and Table 3 about here

These data show that sales/marketing trainers in Stage I (Exploration) spend more time evaluating programs and performing need analyses than those in Stage IV (Decline). These findings provide additional support for the differentiation of sales/marketing trainers by career stage. Similar to the findings that differences in competencies are critical to success, there is also evidence of different role behavior among the different stages of career development.

In conducting this analysis, it was found that the time spent performing many of the roles was quite low. For example, trainers indicated they spent less than two percent of their time in 17 (26 percent) of the 64 Stage by Role cells (Table 3). Interestingly, the mean reported time spent conducting needs assessments, arguably a critical aspect of training program development, was less than five percent for all career stages except Stage I (Exploration) where the mean reported time was about seven percent. Moreover, this study found no direct link or relationship between the 31 competencies and the fifteen roles identified by the ASTD study (McLagan, 1983). While this study used the 15 roles identified by McLagan (1983), there are other less complex models.

Chalofsky and Lahiff (1975) and Jax and Richards (1977) reported that trainers performed one or more of these four roles: (1) Learning Specialist, (2) Administrator, (3) Consultant, and (4) Program Manager. Nadler (1970, 1984) defined three major roles of the trainer as (1) Learning/Teaching Specialist, (2) Manager of HRD, and (3) Consultant. Only four of the roles defined for this study were statistically significant at one stage or the other. That is, differential amounts of time were devoted to the performance of the roles across stages. These roles included trainers involved in (1) evaluation, (2) needs analysis, (3) managing, and (4) administration. Perhaps a less complex model of trainers' roles would have yielded better discrimination among stages.

Research Question Three

This question sought to identify those competencies that are more important to each stage--i.e., the competencies that are critical (highly rated) to success for sales and marketing trainers at different stages.

The criticality of competencies to sales and marketing trainers' success at different stages was defined by levels of importance:

Mean Value	
5.40 - 6.00	Most Important to Success
4.20 - 5.39	Very Important to Success
3.00 - 4.19	Important to Success
Less than 3.00	Not Important to Success

A summary of the mean levels of importance of competencies across the four stages is presented in Table 4. These data are displayed by stage of career development in Tables 5 to 8 and clearly show that some competencies are more critical to success for sales and marketing trainers at one stage than another. However, certain patterns emerge that show consistently higher or lower ratings of specific competencies within stages. Of all the 31 competencies, twelve were statistically significant at one stage or another and about eighteen were closely rated across the four stages. These competencies could be regarded as "core experiences" for sales and marketing trainers in all four career stages (See Figure II).

Tables 5, 6, 7, 8 and Figure II about here

In all four stages, "Presentation Skills" ranked first as the most important competency critical for success for sales and marketing trainers. It is not surprising that presentation skills topped the list of critical competencies of sales and marketing trainers across the four stages. Many of the fundamentals required for success in their personal lives require presentation skills, such as the approach, presentation, handling objections, and closing and follow-up (Stanton and Buskirk, 1983). Some of the techniques for presenting the material in sales training programs which have proven to be effective are lectures, discussion, demonstrations, role playing, videotapes, and case studies. All draw heavily on

presentation skills.

Tables 5 to 8 provide the rank order of priority, as well as the mean scores of the competencies across the four stages. This ranking procedure allows the user of the study to set priorities for the design of training programs for sales and marketing trainers. All 31 competencies, except for research skills at the exploration stage, were considered to be at least "important" to career success in sales and marketing training. Research skills were ranked at or near the bottom in the other three stages, as well. Research is a means of gathering information in order to make a decision. Research skills may have been ranked very low because of the mystique of research as a process that draws heavily on statistical analysis which may be complicated at times.

Conclusions

The findings of this study support the following conclusions:

1. There is evidence of relationships between the competencies that sales/marketing trainers perceived as critical to success and their stage of career development. The data indicated evidence of different role responsibilites between stages. Consequently, the findings support the conclusion that there is a relationship between the training needs of sales and marketing trainers and their career stage. This is

congruent with the career stage theory that suggests that needs/wants are different from one stage of career development to the other.

2. The findings also suggest a common core of training needs for sales/marketing trainers within stages of career development. While all but one are considered important, the relative importance varies between stages. So the study supports the concept of a body of knowledge which is common to all and which forms the nucleus of a training program for sales/marketing trainers.

3. The 31 competencies identified in the ASTD study for sales/marketing trainers (McLagan, 1983) are critical to success for sales and marketing trainers in all the four stages except for research skills at the exploration stage. While this study validates the ASTD study (McLagan, 1983), there is no evidence to support a direct link and/or a relationship between the 31 competencies and the fifteen roles identified by the ASTD study. This is one of the weaknesses in the ASTD's fifteen roles.

Recommendations

The conclusions of this study have many implications for educators, as well as for businesses and industries which conduct training programs for trainers in sales and marketing.

1. Educators, curriculum planners, and advisory committee members for sales training programs should carefully examine the findings of the study and make appropriate curriculum decisions. For example, emphasis on sales/marketing training programs for trainers should focus on activities that will help the learners develop those competencies considered critical to success in their stage of career development (see Figure 5-I).
2. Those competencies that were agreed upon as being common or "core experiences" and that had high mean scores should be viewed as essential when planning training programs for sales trainers or potential sales trainers
3. Institutions or businesses which conduct training for profit or for their employees should consider their employees' stages of career development as these may influence the training needs of the trainees for sales/marketing trainers. For sales and marketing trainers identified as explorers, such programs should emphasize identification skills, facilities skills, performance observation skills, delegation skills, counseling skills, and records management skills in addition to the core competencies.

For individuals in the establishment stage, training programs should emphasize intellectual versatility, facilities skills, cost-benefit analysis skills, and records management,

in addition to the core competencies. Training programs for sales/marketing trainers in the maintenance stage should emphasize understanding of adult learning, futuring skills, delegation skills, cost-benefit analysis, career development understanding, feedback skills, intellectual versatility, and records management skills. Finally, training programs targeted to sales/marketing trainers in the decline stage should emphasize counseling skills performance observation skills, facilities skills, delegation skills, and understanding of adult learning.

Recommendations for future research based on the findings include the following:

1. Research should examine the link between the roles as identified by the ASTD study and the trainers' competencies.
2. Future studies should attempt to examine other issues that may affect training needs, such as stages of organization and size of the organization in terms of the number of employees.
3. Validation of ASTD studies (McLagan, 1983) should be examined with categories of trainers in mind other than sales/marketing trainer.

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Table 1

ANOVA Summary Among the 31 Competency Means and 4 Stages

Competency	SS	MS	F	Stage Different
Adult Learning Understanding	8.51	2.84	2.28*	3,4 vs 2,1
A/V Skill	9.26	3.09	1.51	
Career Development Knowledge	9.66	3.22	2.41*	3 vs 2,4,1
Competency Identification Skill	25.93	8.64	5.64***	1 vs 4,3,2
Computer Competence	9.71	3.24	1.58	
Cost-Benefit Analysis Skill	34.10	11.37	6.89***	3,1 vs 4
Counseling Skill	15.27	2.09	2.52*	4 vs 3,2,1
Data Reduction Skill	10.31	3.44	1.67	
Delegation Skill	24.10	8.03	4.50***	1 vs 2
Facilities Skill	14.87	4.96	2.67**	1 vs 3
Feedback Skill	5.96	1.99	2.43*	3 vs 2,1,4
Futuring Skill	10.67	3.56	2.61*	3 vs 4,2,1
Group Process Skill	1.99	0.66	0.53	
Industry Understanding	7.71	0.66	0.53	
Intellectual Versatility	7.71	2.57	2.23*	1 vs 4
Library Skill	3.71	1.24	0.63	
Model Building Skill	3.62	1.21	0.63	
Negotiation Skill	4.68	1.56	1.04	
Objective Preparation Skill	6.95	2.32	1.85	
Organizational Behavior Underderstanding	1.76	0.59	0.48	
Organizational Understanding	6.45	2.13	1.97	
Performance Observation Skill	21.79	7.26	4.40***	1 vs 2,3
Personnel/HR Field Understanding	5.94	1.98	1.19	
Presentation Skill	2.72	0.91	1.57	
Questioning Skill	3.88	1.29	1.37	
Records Management Skill	16.93	5.64	2.50*	1 vs 4
Relationship Versatility	1.76	0.59	0.50	
Research Skills	11.93	3.98	1.92	
T & D Field Understanding	8.27	2.76	1.98	
T & D Technique Understanding	5.74	1.91	1.39	
Writing Skill	2.87	0.96	1.33	

Level of Significance
* $p < .1$
** $p < .05$
*** $p < .01$

Table 2

ANOVA Summary Among the 15 Role Percentage Means and 4 Stages

Role	SS	MS	F	Stage Different
Evaluation	252.31	84.10	3.15**	1 vs 4
Group Facilitating	824.66	274.89	1.14	
Counseling	152.81	50.94	0.75	
Writing	468.36	156.12	1.07	
Management	3754.06	1251.35	3.00**	3 vs 1
Marketing	870.47	290.16	1.73	
A/V Production	83.05	27.68	0.29	
Need Analysis	355.79	118.60	3.73**	1 vs 4
Administration	4615.71	1538.57	3.96***	4 vs 3
Designing Program	217.89	72.63	1.10	
Long Range Planning	185.09	61.70	0.96	
Conduct Task Analysis	7.24	2.41	1.47	
Research	81.86	27.29	1.25	
Teaching	541.43	180.48	1.04	
Transferring Technology	45.95	15.32	1.81	
Other	859.45	286.48	1.73	

Level of Significance
* $p < .1$
** $p < .05$
*** $p < .01$

Table 3

Mean Percentage Time Spent in Each Role Per Stage

Role	Career Stage			
	I	II	III	IV
Evaluation	6.86	3.59	3.37	1.92
Group Facilitating	5.29	11.04	9.91	4.84
Counseling	1.86	3.72	5.36	3.74
Writing	0.86	6.64	3.77	3.84
Managing	10.64	12.83	24.09	15.63
Marketing	9.57	6.30	10.36	4.34
A/V Production	5.71	3.23	3.98	3.16
Need Analysis	6.93	3.43	4.91	1.76
Administration	12.64	14.15	4.30	18.82
Designing Program	6.21	7.51	5.57	4.47
Long Range Planning	3.71	4.55	6.66	6.45
Conduct Task Analysis	0.86	0.32	0.57	0.13
Research	3.57	1.93	1.89	0.82
Teaching	15.57	10.34	8.75	9.08
Transferring Technology	1.93	0.75	1.32	0.13
Other	2.64	1.08	2.84	1.32

Stage I = Exploration
II = Establishment
III = Maintenance
IV = Decline

Table 4

Competency Means and Levels of Importance in 4 Stages

Competency	Stages			
	I	II	III	IV
Adult Learning Understanding	4.50**	4.81**	5.20**	5.18**
A/V Skill	4.00*	3.62*	3.95*	3.34*
Career Development Knowledge	3.21*	3.51*	3.98*	3.45*
Competency Identification Skill	5.14**	3.77*	4.32**	3.82*
Computer Competence	4.07*	3.21*	3.57*	3.32*
Cost Benefit Analysis Skill	4.07*	3.60*	4.27**	3.03*
Counseling Skill	4.42**	3.92*	4.18*	4.74**
Data Reduction Skill	4.00*	3.19*	3.68*	3.39*
Delegation Skill	4.79**	3.70*	4.57**	4.21**
Facilities Skill	5.14**	4.13*	4.09*	4.50**
Feedback Skill	5.00**	5.04**	5.43***	4.95**
Futuring Skill	4.36**	3.92*	4.57**	4.11*
Group Process Skill	4.86**	4.67**	4.84**	4.97**
Industry Understanding	5.14**	4.52**	4.89**	4.47**
Intellectual Versatility	5.43***	4.81**	5.00**	4.87**
Library Skill	4.29**	3.75*	3.80*	3.71*
Model Building Skill	3.21*	3.43*	3.73*	3.55*
Negotiation Skill	4.79**	4.36**	4.75**	4.66**
Objective Preparation Skill	5.00**	4.52**	4.98**	4.97**
Organizational Behavior Understanding	4.79**	4.79**	4.68**	4.97**
Organizational Understanding	5.14**	4.67**	5.05**	3.16*
Performance Observation Skill	5.07**	4.21**	3.91*	4.71**
Personnel/HR Field Understanding	4.29**	3.96*	3.86*	4.34**
Presentation Skill	5.93***	5.57***	5.61***	5.42***
Questioning Skill	5.21**	4.96**	5.32**	4.97**
Records Management Skill	4.36**	3.64*	3.70*	3.13*
Relationship Versatility	5.21**	4.87**	5.05**	5.05**
Research Skills	2.86	3.57*	3.57*	3.02*
T & D Field Understanding	5.07**	4.38**	4.61**	4.87**
T & D Technique Understanding	4.64**	5.02**	5.14**	4.68**
Writing Skill	5.36**	5.36**	5.32**	5.03**

*** Most Important to Success (5.40 - 6.00)
** Very Important to Success (4.20 - 5.39)
* Important to Success (3.00 - 4.19)

Table 5

Ranking of Competencies at the Exploration Stage

Rank Order of Priority	Competency	Mean Score
	Most Important (5.40 - 6.00)	
1	Presentation Skill	5.93
2	Intellectual Versatility	5.43
	Very Important (4.20 - 5.39)	
3	Writing Skill	5.36
4	Questioning Skill	5.21
4	Relationship Versatility	5.21
5	Competency Identification Skill	5.14
5	Facilities Skill	5.14
5	Industry Understanding	5.14
5	Organizational Understanding	5.14
6	Performance Observation Skill	5.07
6	T & D Field Understanding	5.07
7	Feedback Skill	5.00
7	Objective Preparation Skill	5.00
8	Group Process Skill	4.86
9	Delegation Skill	4.79
9	Negotiation Skill	4.79
10	Organizational Behavior Understanding	4.79
11	T & Technique Understanding	4.64
12	Adult Learning Understanding	4.50
13	Counseling Skill	4.42
14	Futuring Skill	4.36
14	Records Management Skill	4.36
15	Library Skill	4.29
15	Personnel/HR Field Understanding	4.29
	Important (3.00 - 4.19)	
16	Computer Competence	4.07
16	Cost-Benefit Analysis	4.07
17	A/V Skill	4.00
17	Data Reduction Skill	4.00
18	Career Development Knowledge	3.21
18	Model Building Skill	3.21
	Not Important (Less than 3.00)	
19	Research Skill	2.86

Table 6

Ranking of Competencies at the Establishment Stage

Rank Order of Priority	Competency	Mean Score
	Most Important (5.40 - 6.00)	
1	Presentation Skill	5.57
	Very Important (4.20 - 5.39)	
2	Writing Skill	5.36
3	Feedback Skill	5.04
4	T & D Technique Understanding	5.02
5	Questioning Skill	4.96
6	Relationship Versatility	4.87
7	Adult Learning Understanding	4.81
7	Intellectual Versatility	4.81
8	Organizational Behavior Understanding	4.79
9	Group Process Skill	4.67
9	Organizational Understanding	4.67
9	Industry Understanding	4.52
9	Objective Preparation Skill	4.52
10	T & D Field Understanding	4.38
11	Negotiation Skill	4.36
12	Performance Observation Skill	4.21
	Important (3.00 - 4.19)	
13	Facilities Skill	4.13
14	Personnel/HR Field Understanding	3.96
15	Counseling Skill	3.92
15	Futuring Skill	3.92
16	Competence Identification Skill	3.77
17	Library Skill	3.75
18	Delegation Skill	3.70
19	Records Management Skill	3.64
20	A/V Skill	3.62
21	Cost-Benefit Analysis Skill	3.60
22	Research Skill	3.57
23	Career Development Knowledge	3.51
24	Model Building Skill	3.43
25	Computer Competence	3.21
26	Data Reduction Skill	3.19

Table 7

Ranking of Competencies at the Maintenance Stage

Rank Order of Priority	Competency	Mean Score
	Most Important (5.40 - 6.00)	
1	Presentation Skill	5.61
2	Feedback Skill	5.43
	Very Important (4.20 - 5.39)	
3	Questioning Skill	5.32
3	Writing Skill	5.32
4	Adult Learning Understanding	5.20
5	T & D Technique Understanding	5.14
6	Organizational Understanding	5.05
6	Relationship Versatility	5.05
7	Intellectual Versatility	5.00
8	Objective Preparation Skill	4.98
9	Industry Understanding	4.89
10	Group Process Skill	4.84
11	Negotiation Skill	4.75
12	Organizational Behavior Understanding	4.68
13	T & D Field Understanding	4.61
14	Delegation Skill	4.57
14	Futuring Skill	4.57
15	Competence Identification Skill	4.32
16	Cost-Benefit Analysis Skill	4.27
	Important (3.00 - 4.19)	
17	Counseling Skill	4.18
18	Facilities Skill	4.09
19	Career Development Knowledge	3.98
20	A/V Skill	3.95
21	Performance Observation Skill	3.91
22	Personnel/HR Field Understanding	3.86
23	Library Skill	3.80
24	Model Building Skill	3.73
25	Records Management Skill	3.70
26	Data Reduction Skill	3.68
27	Computer Competence	3.57
27	Research Skill	

Table 8

Ranking of Competencies at the Decline Stage

Rank Order of Priority	Competency	Mean Score
	Most Important (5.40 - 6.00)	
1	Presentation Skill	5.42
	Very Important (4.20 - 5.39)	
2	Adult Learning Understanding	5.18
3	Organizational Understanding	5.16
4	Relationship Versatility	5.05
5	Writing Skill	5.03
6	Group Process Skill	4.97
6	Objective Preparation Skill	4.97
6	Organizational Behavior Understanding	4.97
6	Questioning Skill	4.97
7	Feedback Skill	4.95
8	Intellectual Versatility	4.87
8	T & D Field Understanding	4.87
9	Counseling Skill	4.74
10	Performance Observation Skill	4.71
11	T & D Technique Understanding	4.68
12	Negotiation Skill	4.66
13	Facilities Skill	4.50
14	Industry Understanding	4.47
15	Personnel/HR Field Understanding	4.34
16	Delegation Skill	4.21
	Important (3.00 - 4.19)	
17	Futuring Skill	4.11
18	Competence Identification Skill	3.82
19	Library Skill	3.71
20	Model Building Skill	3.55
21	Career Development Knowledge	3.45
22	Data Reduction Skill	3.39
23	A/V Skill	3.34
24	Computer Competence	3.32
25	Records Management Skill	3.13
26	Cost-Benefit Analysis Skill	3.03
27	Research Skill	3.02

Figure I

Pattern of Differences in Training Needs for Sales/ Marketing Trainers Across Career Stages

STAGES	Competencies Statistically Different	
Exploration (Stage I)	Competency Identification	(Stages II, III, IV)*
	Cost-Benefit Analysis	(Stage IV)
	Delegation Skill	(Stage II)
	Facilities Skill	(Stage III)
	Intellectual Versatility	(Stage IV)
	Performance Observation	(Stages II, III)
	Records Management	(Stage IV)
Establishment (Stage II)	None	None
Maintenance (Stage III)	Adult Learning	(Stage I, II)
	Career Development	(Stages II, III, IV)
	Cost-Benefit Analysis	(Stage IV)
	Feedback Skill	(Stages I, II, IV)
	Futuring Skill	(Stages I, II, IV)
Decline (Stage IV)	Adult Learning	(Stages I, II)
	Counseling Skill	(Stages I, II, III)

*( ) Indicates stage(s) at which the competency was ranked significantly lower ($p \leq .1$).

Figure II

Suggested Core Competencies for Sales/Marketing Trainers

High Need	Medium Need	Low Need
Presentation Skill	Objective Preparation	A/V Skill
Writing Skill	Intellectual Versatility	Understanding of Career Development
Relationship Versatility	Adult Learning Understanding	Computer Competence
	Questioning Skill	Data Reduction Skill
	Understanding of T&D	Library Skill
	Understanding of T&D Technique	Model Building Skill
	Understanding of Organization Behavior	Understanding of Personnel/HR Field
	Negotiation Skill	Research Skills
	Industry Understanding	
	Group Process Skill	
	Futuring Skill	
	Feedback Skill	

A Report of a Marketing Education Professional Development Activity to Provide Training for Teachers in the Use of the Nominal Group Technique

by

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Abstract

This report details a research activity undertaken to determine the hindrances faced by marketing education teachers in the conduct of their marketing education programs. This research endeavor was funded by the North Carolina State Board of Education and the activities were accomplished under aegis of the Office of Research Services of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. The project had objectives: a teacher training emphasis and a research emphasis. Many research endeavors may ultimately impact at a later time on professional development activities. This project had a built-in component that teachers would receive some aspect of teacher training.

A Report of a Marketing Education Professional Development Activity to Provide Training for Teachers in the Use of the Nominal Group Technique

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The first step in this endeavor was to identify the problem statement that would allow participants to be trained in the Nominal Group Technique (Ford & Nemiroff,1975) procedure, the opportunity to relate the training to a problem familiar to their surroundings and also ascertain the problems that marketing teachers face in conducting their multiple roles as marketing teachers.

The project directors met with selected state staff personnel to discuss the problem statement and, later, held a conference call to arrive at consensus to the wording of the statement. The statement agreed upon was as follows, "What obstacles (or problems) do marketing education teachers face in the conduct (carrying out their role) of the marketing education program?"

Five focus groups comprising a total of fifty marketing teachers were convened throughout the state and trained in the use of the Nominal Group Technique (NGT). In each of these five meetings the technique was explained and demonstrated. In addition, the NGT was demonstrated to the joint marketing state staff and teacher educator group.

Based on the results of the five focus groups, a survey instrument using a five-point Likert scale was developed. The survey contained 43 separate concerns that teachers expressed as a critical hindrance in the conduct of the marketing education program. See Appendix I for a copy of the questionnaire.

Using a state-supplied1988 address list of marketing education teachers, a random sample of 150 teachers was selected. Questionnaires were mailed with self-addressed enveloped to the selected teachers.

One hundred and twenty usable questionnaires were returned (80%). The questionnaires were then analyzed and the information was summarized according to the criticality of each item. The items were classified as the "ten most critical," "the ten second most critical," and the ten third most critical," and the fourth group was listed as "other." See Appendix II for the critical lists.

Final Comments

Most surveys of teachers produce a low return. To paraphrase the Chief Consultant for Marketing Education, "The return rate for this survey indicates what happens when teachers are asked to respond to something they consider relevant." One of the results of the project was the identification of the 30 most critical items to marketing teachers; these 30 items could be used as the basis for planning for future inservice activities for marketing teacher, guidance counselors, principals, and local vocational directors.

Reference

Ford, D. L., Jr. & Nemiroff, P. M. (1975). Applied group problem-solving: The nominal group technique. In The 1975 annual handbook for group facilitators. University Associates Publishers.

Appendix I

NORTH CAROLINA MARKETING EDUCATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Please indicate your opinion in regard to the statement, "What obstacles (or problems) do marketing education teachers face in the conduct (carrying out their role) of the marketing education program?" Indicate your opinion by circling the appropriate number: "5" = strongly agree, "4" = agree, "3" = no opinion, "2" = disagree, "1" = strongly disagree.

5 4 3 2 1 (1) Excess paperwork
5 4 3 2 1 (2) Financing chapter activities
5 4 3 2 1 (3) Time for coordination
5 4 3 2 1 (4) Inadequate facilities (office, storage, classroom)
5 4 3 2 1 (5) Lack of a representative (high to low)range of student abilities
5 4 3 2 1 (6) Recruiting new students for marketing education (ME)
5 4 3 2 1 (7) Middle grades students not informed about ME at secondary level
5 4 3 2 1 (8) Lack of knowledge on the promotion of the ME program
5 4 3 2 1 (9) Selling the principal on the concept that DECA is educational
5 4 3 2 1 (10) Principal(s) misunderstanding the ME program
5 4 3 2 1 (11) Guidance counselor(s) misunderstand the ME program
5 4 3 2 1 (12) Not being able to interview/approve students for ME program
5 4 3 2 1 (13) Only a few ME teachers will do the work on a joint activity (ex. DCEC)
5 4 3 2 1 (14) Lack of financing for equipment and materials
5 4 3 2 1 (15) Lack of access to computers in the classroom
5 4 3 2 1 (16) Curriculum materials are too skimpy
5 4 3 2 1 (17) Confusion created by option of business education teachers and ME teachers offering some of the same course(s)
5 4 3 2 1 (18) Lack of time for activities beyond a "regular" teacher's duties
5 4 3 2 1 (19) Evaluator does not reflect the unique aspects of teaching marketing when using the state evaluation form
5 4 3 2 1 (20) Employers misunderstand the marketing education program
5 4 3 2 1 (21) No recognition or "comp" time given for after-school (evening) coordination
5 4 3 2 1 (22) Being assigned to more than one room in which to teach
5 4 3 2 1 (23) Costs of DECA are excessive
5 4 3 2 1 (24) Lack of extended employment
5 4 3 2 1 (25) DECA competitive events do not coincide with parts of the curriculum completed as of the DECA event(s) date
5 4 3 2 1 (26) Class enrollments exceed state guidelines
5 4 3 2 1 (27) Lack of recognition for a job well-done
5 4 3 2 1 (28) Time demands that DECA places on available classroom instruction time
5 4 3 2 1 (29) High DECA dues hinder DECA participation
5 4 3 2 1 (30) Extra school duties interfere with coordination
5 4 3 2 1 (31) Other programs are adversely effecting ME enrollment
5 4 3 2 1 (32) Lack of a single textbook to serve an entire course

5 4 3 2 1 (33) Lack of a private telephone line
5 4 3 2 1 (34) Lack of a private office for student/employer conferences
5 4 3 2 1 (35) Difficulty in bringing all curriculum sources together
5 4 3 2 1 (36) Lack of time for course preparation
5 4 3 2 1 (37) Lack of background in specific technical areas (ex., fashion)
5 4 3 2 1 (38) Difficulty in integrating DECA with the instructional program
5 4 3 2 1 (39) The second year ME curriculum is unexciting
5 4 3 2 1 (40) Lack of training in the computer area
5 4 3 2 1 (41) Lack of peer support
5 4 3 2 1 (42) Marketing education is a "dumping ground"
5 4 3 2 1 (43) Lack of financing for professional development

Now, would you please provide us with some demographic information by completing the following information request?

1. Total Years taught (in all subject areas) :
   ___ 0 ___ 1-3 ___ 4-6 ___ 7-9 ___ 10 plus
2. Employment experience in a marketing job:
   ___ 0 ___ 1-3 ___ 4-6 ___ 7-9 ___ 10 plus
3. Identify your bachelor's degree major:
   ___marketing education ___business education ___ other
4. Highest degree held: ___ bachelor's degree ____master's or above
5. Sex: ___male ___female

Appendix II

Top Ten Concerns

1. Excess paperwork
2. Financing chapter activities
3. Lack of time for ME duties beyond regular teacher duties
4. No recognition or "comp" time given for after-school (evening) coordination visits
5. Cost of DECA are excessive
6. Time for coordination
7. Guidance counselors misunderstand the ME program
8. Middle grades students not informed about ME at secondary level
9. High DECA dues hinder participation
10. Difficulty in bringing all curriculum sources together

Second Top Ten Concerns

1. Lack of time for course preparation
2. Extra school duties interfere with coordination
3. Lack of a single text to serve an entire course
4. DECA competitive events do not coincide with curriculum as of DECA event date
5. Lack of financing for professional development
6. Inadequate facilities (office, storage, classroom)
7. Evaluator does not reflect the unique aspects of teaching when using the state evaluation form
8. Lack of access to computers in the classroom

Second Top Ten Concerns (continued)

9. The second year ME curriculum is unexciting
10. Recruiting new students for marketing education

Third Top Ten Concerns

1. Lack of recognition for a job well done
2. Time demands DECA places on instruction time
3. Other programs are adversely effecting ME enrollment
4. Lack of training in computer area
5. Not being able to interview/approve students for ME program
6. Marketing education is a dumping ground
7. Only a few ME teachers will do the work on a joint activity (ex., distirct competitive events conference)
8. Lack of financing for equipment and materials
9. Lack of a representative (high to low) range of student abilities
10. Lack of background in specific technical areas

The Perceptions of Secondary, Marketing Education Students Regarding Ethical Behavior in Business

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Running Head: Perceptions of Ethical Behavior

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Abstract

Three hundred and ninety-seven secondary, marketing education students and four hundred and forty-two secondary students not pursuing studies in marketing from the states of Illinois and Indiana responded to an instrument called a Situational Scenario Inventory (SSI). The purpose of the study was to determine the extent to which differences in the ethical orientation of the marketing students and the other students occurred, to determine if the ability to discriminate between ethical and unethical behaviors differed between the two groups, and to determine if secondary, marketing education students perceived their choices of behaviors as more ethical than that of most marketing employees.

The major findings revealed little variance between the two groups in terms of ethical orientation; however, the students were indecisive as to the behavior that they would exhibit. There was no significant differences between the two groups in discriminating between ethical and unethical behaviors. The secondary, marketing education students believed that their responses to situations would be more ethical than that of most employees.

The Perceptions of Secondary, Marketing Education Students Regarding Ethical Behavior in Business

Introduction

Recently highly publicized episodes of violations of ethical behavior in the businessworld underscore the need to be concerned with ethical behavior. Indeed, attention has been focused upon such topics as conflicts of interest, confidentiality of corporate information, misappropriations of business assets, bribes, kickbacks, and insider trading on Wall Street. Marketing practitioners, however, are not spared as opportunities exist to misrepresent products and services, engage in price-fixing, design false or misleading ads, package products in a deceptive manner, use inaccurate labeling, follow discriminatory personnel practices, and yield to other unfair and wrongful business actions.

While pointing out that recent polls demonstrate that business is mistrusted by one-half to three quarters of the American public, Kreitner (Business Year, 1985) concluded: "Americans mistrust corporate leaders, companies, industries, and products with growing force and many observers feel that the peak of popular vituperation has not yet been reached." As with any ills of society, many people are now turning to the public schools and demanding that morality become an important facet of the curriculum. Grant (NEA Today, 1989) points to a new consensus among parents, teachers, and the public that value clarification and moral reasoning are valuable activities in the

proper context.

The problem of business ethics has received accelerated research interest in the past few years. However, little research appears to have been conducted at the secondary and community college levels. Ferrell and Weaver (Journal of Marketing, 1978) explored the general ethical attitudes of marketing practitioners. Dawson (Michigan State University, 1968), Hawkins and Coranougher (Journal of Marketing, 1972), and Budner (Delta Pi Epsilon Journal, 1987) examined the attitudes of college marketing students pertaining to ethical beliefs. The business curriculum in colleges and universities emphasize the social, moral, and political dimensions of professional employees' behaviors in the functional areas of business. Many secondary schools fail to address ethics; yet, such institutions are the terminal places of occupational preparation for over one-half of today's youth.

While a void of research addressing the ethical behavior of secondary students in general, and secondary, marketing education students in particular, has been cited, it should be noted that articles have appeared in the literature giving credence to the significance of ethics as a research topic. Scott (Business Education Forum, 1986) discussed moral and ethical behavior in basic business, while Wakin (Today's Office, 1985) titled his article "Business Ethics and the Bottom Line." Stevens (Journal of Business Education, 1985) discussed ethical inclinations of tomorrows managers, and Krohn (Journal of Business Communications, 1985) provided a general semantics approach to teaching business ethics. Therefore, the review of literature

assisted in establishing the need for the study which is reported hereafter.

Statement of the Problem

This study was undertaken to determine if secondary, marketing education students adhered to ethical standards when responding to a number of situations frequently encountered by marketing practitioners, and to ascertain the extent to which their responses differed from those of other secondary students. Other research questions related to the problem were also addressed. Because ethics depend on a personal interpretation of society's standards, students' perceptions as to behaviors deemed acceptable or unacceptable were examined. In addition, the investigators wished to examine students' perceptions as to the ethical behavior that would be exhibited by most marketing employees when confronted with situations that required choices of ethical or unethical behavior.

The following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis I: There will be a significant difference between the ethical orientation of secondary, marketing education students and other secondary students as measured by their responses to the Situational Scenario Inventory (SSI).

Hypothesis II: Secondary, marketing education students will have a significantly higher level of discrimination in perceiving marketing practices as unethical than other secondary students.

Hypothesis III: There will be a significant difference between the behavior that secondary, marketing education students say they would follow and the behavior that they believe most

marketing employees would follow.

Scope of the Study

The scope of this study was confined to an examination of attitudinal behaviors as applied to 12 situational scenarios in a marketing environment. These scenarios posed opportunities for choices of ethical or unethical behaviors when an employee was interacting with supervisors, other employees, customers, friends, the public, and the government, while engaged in day-to-day marketing operations. Other scenarios might have been created which depicted other problems of ethical or unethical behaviors; however, such scenarios were beyond the scope of this study;.

Limitations of the Study

Some limitations existed in this study. First, the sample of secondary, marketing education students and secondary, non-marketing education students were located in the two midwestern states of Illinois and Indiana. Thus, the assumption should not be made that the results were representative of all secondary, marketing and non-marketing education students.

A more fundamental limitation was that while the students were asked to identify the behaviors that they would display in reacting to the 12 scenarios, there was no mechanism to determine if that indeed was the case or if students chose responses that they believed to be socially acceptable.

Definition of Term

The connotation attached to the term, ethics, may not be apparent to the reader. Therefore, the following definition may be useful.

Marketing ethics--involves critical analysis of human acts

to determine their rightness or wrongness in terms of two major criteria: truth and justice.

For the purposes of this study, the investigators referred to the American Marketing Associations Code of Ethics. This Code establishes standards to be followed by the marketers in the marketing exchange process, product development and management, promotions, distribution, pricing, marketing research, and organizational relationships. (See Appendix A: Code of Ethics, American Marketing Association).

Methodology

To obtain the necessary data, a Situational Scenario Inventory (SSI) was developed after examining major print media coverage of questionable ethical behaviors in marketing. This section contains a description of the population, instrument design, and data analysis.

Population

The population surveyed was composed of 224 secondary, marketing education students in Illinois, and 173 secondary, marketing education students in Indiana. The population surveyed also included 263 secondary students who were not pursuing marketing education studies in Illinois, and 179 secondary students who were not pursuing marketing education studies in Indiana.

In each of the two states, the investigators randomly selected ten schools to be included in the survey. Instructors in the twenty schools were asked to administer the SSI to marketing education students and to find a class of similar size

made up of students who were not pursuing studies in marketing and request that the instructor administer the instrument. All instructors agreed to participate. The survey instruments were delivered to the secondary, marketing education instructors at the DECA State Career Development Conferences in March, 1988. In addition, large, postage-paid mailers were also provided to enable easy return of the completed survey instruments. The completed instruments were returned by all participating schools during March and April, 1988.

Instrument Design

The 12 situational scenarios were written after completing a review of the literature. Each scenario depicted a marketing employee confronted with a delicate situation that required a decision by members of the population being surveyed. Members of the population were presented three alternatives: a choice that would involve ethical behavior, a choice that would involve unethical behavior, and a choice which reflected indecision on the part of the respondent. Choosing the alternative that involved ethical behavior often placed the respondent in conflict with an employer, supervisor, or friend, and, in some cases, negated the opertunity for personal gain.

The respondents were asked to choose the alternatives which reflected the behaviors they would display if confronted with the delicate situations in the workplace. They were also asked to identify the alternatives which they believed most marketing employees would choose. Finally, they were asked to rate the behaviors described in the scenarios on a five-point continuum,

ranging from extremely unethical to highly ethical.

A pilot study was conducted to help determine content validity, ease of completion, and reliability of the SSI. Six preservice, marketing education teachers at Illinois State University participated in the pilot study. These participants were asked to complete the instrument and then make suggestions regarding its improvement.

Data Analysis

To test for significant differences between the ethical orientation of secondary, marketing education students and other secondary students as measured by their responses to the SSI, a one-way ANOVA was used. Significant differences were considered to be obtained if the computed F ratio yielded a probability of .05 or less.

To test the differences in discriminations between secondary, marketing education students and other secondary students regarding ethical and unethical behaviors, values were assigned to each of the five intervals on the continuum and means were calculated. Again a one-way ANOVA was used to test for significant differences between the means of the two groups.

Finally, a one-way ANOVA was used to test for significant differences between the students' perceptions of their own behaviors and their perceptions of most other employees' behaviors.

Findings

The findings of this study, as shown in Table 1, demonstrate that significant differences between secondary, marketing

education students and other secondary students as measured by their responses to the SSI occurred in three of the twelve scenarios.

Table 1

Differences in the Ethical Orientation of Secondary, Marketing Education Students and Other Secondary Students as Measured by their Responses to the SSI

Scenario	Mean Marketing Students Mean N=397	Mean Other Students Mean N=442	F Ratio	F Probability
Withholding information to protect a co-worker	1.77	1.90	4.0360	.0451*
Changing a date to enable an employer to avoid a penalty	1.85	1.85	.0040	.9497
Disconnecting an odmeter to misrepresent auto mileage	1.85	1.85	.0102	.9195
Engaging in price collusion	1.36	1.34	.1230	.7260
Ignoring the sale of tainted products representing danger to buyers	2.08	1.94	12.3974	.0005*
Destroying sales records to protect an employer	2.06	1.94	3.5184	.0613
Selling faulty merchandise to a visually impaired customer	1.97	1.95	.1372	.7113
Placing an ad with the intent to engage in bait and switch tactics	1.56	1.48	1.3676	.2428
Misrepresenting a premium or give-away to lure potential customers	1.84	1.90	.8099	.3686
Making an illegal copy of a protected software program	1.63	1.47	5.4230	.0203*
Using data from an incorrect invoice to reduce federal taxes	1.86	1.83	.3282	.5670
Protecting a friend who has engaged in shoplifting	1.16	1.72	.2325	.6299

*Significant Difference at the .05 level
Means: 1=Ethical, 2=Indecision, 3=Unethical

A review of the SSI (see Appendix B: Situational Scenario Inventory) demonstrates that, in many of the scenarios, the student respondents were placed in a situation where choosing an alternative which reflected ethical behavior was in conflict with following a supervisor's directive. Thus, the indecisiveness as

reflected by the composite means of the two groups may, in part, be the result of student respondents being pulled between demonstrating loyalty to an employer and depicting ethical behavior.

In any event, as a result of the significant differences that occurred between the F ratios in three of the twelve scenarios, Hypothesis I was confirmed.

Hypothesis II suggested that secondary, marketing education students would demonstrate a higher level of discrimination in recognizing unethical situations than other secondary students. As shown in Table 2, there were no significant differences in the recognition of unethical situations between the composite means for the two groups.

Table 2

Differences in Discrimination of Ethical and Unethical Situations Between Secondary, Marketing Education Students and Other Students

Scenario	Composite Mean Marketing Students Mean N=397	Composite Mean Other Students Mean N=442	F Probability
Withholding information to protect a co-worker	1.84	1.74	.1489
Changing a date to enable an employer to avoid a penalty	1.53	1.62	.2418
Disconnecting an odometer to misrepresent auto mileage	1.61	1.59	.8165
Engaging in price collusion	1.54	1.46	.3335
Ignoring the sale of tainted products representing danger to buyers	1.93	1.80	.0659
Destroying sales records to protect an employer	1.79	1.78	.9263
Selling faulty merchandise to a visually impaired customer	1.67	1.63	.5310
Placing an ad with the intent to engage in bait and switch tactics	1.42	1.35	.3883
Misrepresenting a premium or give-away to lure potential customers	1.83	1.69	.1075
Making an illegal copy of a protected software program	1.53	1.38	.0676
Using data from an incorrect invoice to reduce federal taxes	1.77	1.76	.9651
Protecting a friend who has engaged in shoplifting	1.90	1.99	.3556

*Significance at the .05 level
Means: 1=Ethical, 2=Indecision, 3=Unethical

While no significant differences occurred, marketing education students viewed 10 of the 12 scenarios as slightly more unethical than did other secondary students. Other secondary students viewed two of the scenarios as slightly more unethical than did the marketing education students. The findings illustrate that secondary, marketing education students and other secondary students share similar perceptions as to what constitutes unethical behavior. Therefore, Hypothesis II was rejected.

Hypothesis III sought to determine if secondary, marketing education students believed that a significant difference existed between the behaviors they personally would exhibit and the behaviors that would be exhibited by most other employees in responding to situations depicted in the scenarios. As illustrated in Table 3, significant differences at the .05 level did occur in seven of the twelve comparisons. Thus, Hypothesis III was accepted.

Table 3

Differences Between the Behaviors that Secondary, Marketing Education Students Say They Would Exhibit and the Behaviors Which They Believe Other Employees Would Exhibit

Scenario	Marketing Students Mean	Other Employees Mean	Differences	Level of Significance
Withholding information to protect a co-worker	1.77	2.52	.75	<.05
Changing a date to enable an employer to avoid a penalty	1.85	2.13	.28	>.05
Disconnecting an odmeter to misrepresent auto mileage	1.85	2.35	.50	>.05
Engaging in price collusion	1.36	2.66	1.30	<.05
Ignoring the sale of tainted products representing danger to buyers	2.08	2.67	.59	>.05
Destroying sales records to protect an employer	2.06	2.27	.21	>.05
Selling faculty merchandise to a visually impaired customer	1.97	2.30	.33	>.05

(Continued)

Table 3 (Continued)

Differences Between the Behaviors that Secondary, Marketing Education Students Say They Would Exhibit and the Behaviors Which They Believe Other Employees Would Exhibit

Scenario	Marketing Students Mean	Other Employees Mean	Differences	Level of Significance
Placing an ad with the intent to engage in bait and switch tactics	1.56	2.82	1.26	<.05
Misrepresenting a premium or give-away to lure potential customers	1.84	2.60	.76	<.05
Making an illegal copy of a protected software program	1.63	2.91	1.28	<.05
Using data from an incorrect invoice to reduce federal taxes	1.86	2.84	.98	<.05
Protecting a friend who has engaged in shoplifting	1.16	2.79	1.63	<.05

*p <.05
Means: 1=Ethical, 2=Indecision, 3=Unethical

It appears from the data presented in Table 3 that secondary, marketing education students believe that they possess a keener sense of ethical values than other marketing employees. The greatest difference occurred in the scenario involving price collusion, while the least difference occurred in the scenario involving the destruction of sales records requested by auditors from the State Department of Revenue. The magnitudes of differences between the behaviors that students say they would exhibit and the behaviors that they believe other employees would exhibit are depicted in Table 3.

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, the following conclusions appear to be valid at this time.

Conclusions

1. The ethical orientation of secondary, marketing education students does not appear to be much different from that of other secondary students.
2. The ability of secondary, marketing education students to recognize unethical business situations does not appear to be much different from that of other secondary students.
3. A majority of secondary, marketing education students agree that their responses to delicate situations would be much more ethical than the behavior that most other employees would exhibit.

Implications

The ethical conduct of future marketing practitioners may be influenced by the institutions entrusted with their vocational preparation. As a result, the findings of this study and similar studies have implications in the design and content of the curriculum.

While some colleges and universities have developed courses to assist future marketing professionals in acquiring the attitudinal skills desired in the competitive world of business, it is probably unrealistic to expect secondary institutions to provide such courses for future marketing practitioners. Enhanced graduation requirements and college entrance requirements leave little time for such specialized offerings. Each secondary, marketing education teacher, however, should look for opportunities to integrate into the curriculum an area of

inquiry that focuses upon questions of ethical conduct in the workplace.

This study has implications for curriculum development insomuch as it identifies a number of scenarios to which marketing education students are indecisive in terms of choosing a behavioral alternative that reflects ethical behavior.

While, in many of the scenarios, students were placed in conflicting settings--caught between an employer's request and an ethical value--such situations occur in the businessworld and students should be prepared to cope with them. Therefore, students should be taught to carefully evaluate their responsibilities to their employers and their adherence to acceptable values. A reassessment of the teaching of marketing ethics in secondary, marketing courses is necessary. Situational cases or role-playing would undoubtedly sensitize students to the realities of ethics in scenarios that create conflicts such as loyalty to friends versus violating one's standards, obeying authority versus adhering to personal values, or exposing wrongdoing versus minding one's own business.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered by the investigators.

1. Additional studies focusing upon the ethical orientation of secondary and post secondary, marketing education students should be conducted. Such studies should include a wider variety of scenarios depicting ethical and unethical alternatives. It would also be helpful to know if certain variables, such as sex, rural versus urban location, size of school, etc., influence the

findings.

2. Studies should be conducted to discover which teaching methods prove most effective in inculcating a beneficial ethical orientation.

3. The National Curriculum Framework and Core Competencies for marketing education should be reviewed to determine if the integration of marketing ethics is warranted.

4. Workshops or seminars to assist inservice, secondary marketing education teachers in the integration of ethics into the curriculum should be provided.

5. Teaching/learning materials suitable for use in providing instruction in the area of ethics for secondary and post secondary students should be developed and disseminated.

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The American Marketing Association Code of Ethics is supplied here for ready reference. With the increased power that the knowledge of marketing brings, comes increased responsibility to use this knowledge for the full benefit of society.

Code of Ethics
American Marketing Association

CODE OF ETHICS

Members of the American Marketing Association (AMA) are committed to ethical professional conduct. They have joined together in subscribing to this Code of Ethics embracing the following topics:

Responsibilities of the Marketer

Marketers must accept responsibility for the consequences of their activities and make every effort to ensure that their decisions, recommendations, and actions function to identify, serve, and satisfy all relevant publics: customers, organizations and society.

Marketers' professional conduct must be guided by:

1. The basic rule of professional ethics: not knowingly to do harm;
2. The adherence to all applicable laws and regulations;
3. The accurate representation of their education, training and experience, and
4. The active support, practice and promotion of this Code of Ethics.

Honesty and Fairness

Marketers shall uphold and advance the integrity, honor, and dignity of the marketing profession by:

1. Being honest in serving consumers, clients, employees, suppliers, distributors and the public;
2. Not knowingly participating in conflict of interest without prior notice to all parties involved; and
3. Establishing equitable fee schedules including the payment or receipt of usual, customary and/or legal compensation for marketing exchanges.

Rights and Duties of Parties in the Marketing Exchange Process

Participants in the marketing exchange process should be able to expect that:

1. Products and services offered are safe and fit for their intended uses;
2. Communications about offered products and services are not deceptive;
3. All parties intend to discharge their obligations, financial and otherwise, in good faith; and
4. Appropriate internal methods exist for equitable adjustment and/or redress of grievances concerning purchases.

It is understood that the above would include, but is not limited to, the following responsibilities of the marketer:

In the area of product development and management,

- disclosure of all substantial risks associated with product or service usage
- identification of any product component substitution that might materially change the product or impact on the buyer's purchase decision
- identification of extra-cost added features

In the area of promotions,

- avoidance of false and misleading advertising
- rejection of high pressure manipulations, or misleading sales tactics
- avoidance of sales promotions that use deception or manipulation

In the area of distribution,

- not manipulating the availability of a product for purpose of exploitation
- not using coercion in the marketing channel
- not exerting undue influence over the reseller's choice to handle a product

In the area of pricing,

- not engaging in price fixing,
- not practicing predatory pricing,
- disclosing the full price associated with any purchase

In the area of marketing research,

- prohibiting selling or fund raising under the guise of conducting research
- maintaining research integrity by avoiding misrepresentation and omission of pertinent research data,
- treating outside clients and suppliers fairly

Organizational Relationships

Marketers should be aware of how their behavior may influence or impact on the behavior of others in organizational relationships. They should not demand, encourage or apply coercion to obtain unethical behavior in their relationships with others, such as employees, suppliers or customers.

1. Apply confidentiality and anonymity in professional relationships with regard to privileged information.
2. Meet their obligations and responsibilities in contracts and mutual agreements in a timely manner.
3. Avoid taking the work of others, in whole or in part, and represent this work as their own or directly benefit from it without compensation or consent of the originator or owner.
4. Avoid manipulation to take advantage of situations to maximize personal welfare in a way that unfairly deprives or damages the organization or others.

Any AMA members found to be in violation of any provision of the Code of Ethics may have his or her Association membership suspended or revoked.

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Appendix B--Situational Scenario Inventory

In the first column below and on the following pages are 15 scenarios in which you have been asked to assume a role. Please mark (x) in column B to indicate the action which you would take. Do not respond by choosing the response that you believe is right or wrong, instead, mark the response that describes what you would do. Choose only one response.

In column C, place an (x) to indicate the action that you believe most employees would follow. Choose only one response.

Finally, please indicate along the continuum in column D the degree to which you believe the behavior described in the scenario is ethical or unethical.

Example: extremely unethical | probably unethical | undecided | ethical but with reservations ✓ | highly ethical

A	B I would		C Most employees would
1. Brendan Bartels is a co-worker at the Village Video Rental Store, where you both have part-time jobs. Both Brendan and you were scheduled to work on Wednesday afternoon while Mr. Beach, the store's owner, was out-of-town. You arrived about 10 minutes before 1:00 p.m. and Mr. Beach left, saying Brendan would arrive at 1:00 p.m. At 4:45 p.m. Brendan arrived and said that he had been taking care of some personal matters. He said that if you value his friendship, you won't tell Mr. Beach and that, afterall, he would do the same for you.	( )	Tell Mr. Beach about Brendan's absence	( )
	( )	Refrain from telling Mr. Beach about Brendan's absence	( )
	( )	Undecided	( )
2. Jim Becker, owner of the City National Bank where you work, is consistently late in meeting deadlines. An accountant at the bank recently prepared the bank's federal income tax forms several days before they were due and placed them on Mr. Becker's desk. Today, two days after the forms were due, Mr. Becker signed the forms and brought them out to the customer service area where you are working. As he dropped them on your desk, he said: "Change the date on that postage meter machine so the Feds won't be after me to pay a penalty for mailing these late."	( )	Change the date on the postage meter machine	( )
	( )	Tell Mr. Becker that you prefer not to change the date	( )
	( )	Undecided	( )
3. You are the sales manager at Raceway Motor Sales, a new auto dealership. You have anxiously been awaiting the arrival of a specially ordered sports car which has been assigned to you as a demonstrator vehicle. Today, the auto arrived and Troy Strubhart, owner of the dealership, stated his belief that the auto could quickly be sold. In fact, he suggested that you take the auto into the dealership's service center and have the odometer disconnected so that milage would not be recorded while you are using the car. He said that if the car didn't sell within two or three weeks the odometer should be reconnected.	( )	Ask the service manager to have the odometer disconnected	( )
	( )	Tell Mr. Strubhart that you prefer not to participate in having the odometer disconnected	( )
	( )	Undecided	( )
4. You own a service station in a small town penetrated by a busy interstate highway. In fact, there is only one other service station in town and both you and your competitor's stations are located near the thoroughfare exit. Gasoline wars have characterized the two firms for years as each jockeys to gain a larger share of the market. Consequently, neither station has been very profitable. Recently, the owner of the competing station called you and requested that the two of you agree on a price that would provide a reasonable markup and more profitable operations.	( )	Agree to meet with your competitor and establish a mutually agreed-upon price	( )
	( )	Refuse to meet with your competitor to discuss price	( )
	( )	Undecided	( )

Extremely Unethical | Highly Ethical

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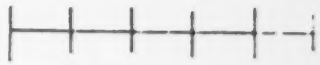
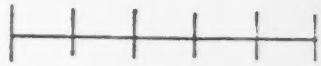
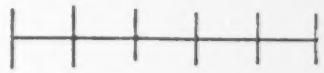
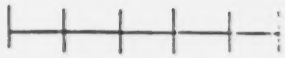
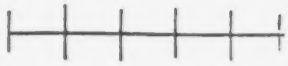
A	B		C	D
5. You are employed at Eichelberger Fish and Seafood Distributing Company, a regional wholesaler. The firm has just received a shipment of catfish from Whittinghill's Catfish Farms. You are aware that during a recent flood, water from a stream which was polluted with PCBs (polychlorinated biphenyl), highly toxic substances, spilled into the ponds.	( )	Ignore the situation	( )	
	( )	Tell the manager that you will call the local Health Department if the catfish are distributed	( )	
	( )	Undecided	( )	
6. The owner of the home entertainment sales center, where you work as assistant manager, has been notified that auditors from the State Department of Revenue will conduct an in-store audit. The controversy centers around the amount of sales tax collected and paid to the state. The auditors contend that more tax should be due on the total sales volume. The owner contends that a heavy portion of total sales was generated by the Service Department. Service sales are exempt from sales tax. The auditors are scheduled to arrive tomorrow. Today, the manager asked you to destroy a number of sales records.	( )	Destroy the records that you have been requested to destroy	( )	
	( )	Refuse to carry out the owner's request	( )	
	( )	Undecided	( )	
7. You are employed at one of the better men's clothing stores in your community. The store is having a special red tag sale--allowing as much as 40 percent discounts on odd sizes, discontinued merchandise, and other slow moving items. All sales are final, no returns will be allowed. An elderly lady approaches you with a pair of men's trousers which she is purchasing as a gift for her grandson. One leg of the trousers has a soiled spot which may be impossible to remove. As you complete the transaction it becomes evident that your customer has extremely impaired eyesight and that she has not noticed the soiled spot on the trousers.	( )	Ignore the situation and complete the sale	( )	
	( )	Call the customer's attention to the soiled trouser leg	( )	
	( )	Undecided	( )	
8. You are the advertising manager at Dunnington's Department Store. The manager of the sporting goods department has asked you to prepare an ad for a popular brand of golf clubs at a special low price. The advertising production staff in your department has prepared the ad to be placed in the local newspaper on Sunday. As policy dictates, you check with the department head prior to placing the ad to assure that a sufficient quantity of the product to be advertised is on hand. You discover that the department has had an unexpected surge of sales on the brand of clubs to be advertised and only four sets remain in the department's inventory. The department head suggests that you go ahead and place the ad. "All of our other golf clubs are more expensive and if we get the customers to come in, we can probably sell them the better quality clubs and make a greater profit," he said. "Afterall, golfers are usually looking for quality in their equipment."	( )	Place the ad as the department manager has requested	( )	
	( )	Refuse to place the ad	( )	
	( )	Undecided	( )	

A	B		C	D
9. You are the promotional manager at Domestic Resort Vacations, a marketer of time-sharing condominiums. Your industry is characterized by aggressive giveaways, that is, prizes designed to lure potential clients to tour the facilities offered by the resorts. The prizes are expensive and many firms find ways to reduce the cost of such promotional items. For example, one firm offered visitors an all-terrain vehicle, free with the exception of a $29.95 handling, processing, and insurance fee. The prize turned out to be a lawn chair with four wheels that converted into a wheeled cart. The accompanying brochure proclaimed, "Take your vehicle anywhere--to the park, to the beach, to an outdoor concert!" You have discovered a firm that can provide a whirlpool bath for $14.95. The firm's representative suggested that a $19.95 handling fee could be collected from the prize winners, leaving you with a $5 profit. The whirlpools are made out of a soft-vinyl plastic material and contain a small motor which runs on four size D batteries.	( )	Use the whirlpool as a promotional giveaway	( )	
	( )	Refuse the opportunity to use the whirlpools	( )	
	( )	Undecided	( )	
10. You are the owner of a petroleum bulk plant and you supply automotive service stations and farmers in your county with petroleum products. Recently, while visiting with another petroleum bulk plant owner in a nearby city, you expressed interest in acquiring a computer software program called Accura-Petro. You believe that the program, which is designed for businesses similar to your firm, would facilitate your operations; however, you have indicated to your colleague that the price is somewhat prohibitive. He answered by saying, "Well, we can certainly solve that problem. I'll loan you my Accura-Petro software program, and you can make a copy to use in your operations."	( )	Make a copy of the software program for use in your firm	( )	
	( )	Refuse the offer to make the copy of the software program	( )	
	( )	Undecided	( )	
11. You are paying 38 percent of your profits to the federal government in the form of taxes. Recently, you received a receipt (invoice marked paid) for merchandise which you purchased for resale. The receipt was for $10,000 and while you were aware that it was in error, you placed it into the folder labeled business expenses which you will send to your accountant at a later date. Two days later, you received a letter informing you that the receipt was in error and a corrected receipt (invoice marked paid) was enclosed. The corrected invoice was for the amount of $1,000. If you take the incorrect receipt from the expense folder and replace it with the corrected receipt, you will pay the federal government $3,420.00 more in taxes.	( )	Leave the incorrect invoice in the business expenses folder and save yourself $3,420.00	( )	
	( )	Replace the incorrect invoice with the corrected one	( )	
	( )	Undecided	( )	
12. You have a part-time job after school at TUCK'S Convenient Mart. Today, you are working alone and three of your best friends from school come into the Mart. Two of your friends are at the counter chatting with you when you notice Denise pick up a can of honey roasted peanuts. You thought she would come up and pay for the peanuts; however, two customers came in and you got busy--your friends left. You noticed that as they walked out the door, Denise was carrying the can of peanuts which sell for $1.79	( )	Tell Denise as soon as you see her that she owes $1.79 and that if she doesn't pay, you will tell the store owner	( )	
	( )	Notify the store owner or manager as soon as that individual arrives	( )	
	( )	Undecided	( )	

A Research Study on Current Advertising Strategies Used By Certified Public Accountants

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Running head: CPA ADVERTISING STRATEGIES

Abstract

In order to measure professional accountants' perceptions toward advertising, the researchers decided to develop a questionnaire. The researchers concentrated on four basic questions:

I. Anticipated Change in Advertising Expenditures as a Percentage of Gross Income.

II. Perceived Effectiveness of Advertising.

III. Relationship Between Perceived Effectiveness of Advertising and Increases in Competition.

IV. Reasons Why Firms Did Not Advertise.

Several observations were formulated by the researchers:

1. Many within the accounting profession still believe advertising is not "professional."
2. Of those who do advertise, most believe it is effective and are willing to increase or at least maintain current expenditures.
3. The researchers found that competition had little impact on perceived effectiveness of advertising.

A Research Study on Current Advertising Strategies Used By Certified Public Accountants.

Since the beginning of the accounting profession in America, accountants have conducted some form of advertising. For years accounting firms have given away books, rulers, and pens embossed with their firms name to old and prospective clients. Moreover, CPAs have actively participated in professional societies, local fund raising efforts, and community improvements projects. While these efforts may not all be attributed to obtaining personal gain, certainly a portion could be allocated as such. Why then was the profession so disturbed with the 1978 Supreme Court ruling allowing accountants, as well as other professionals, to advertise their services? The answer to the question lies in the accountants' desires to be perceived as a "professional." Advertising was acceptable if conducted in a quite personal manner. Overt advertising such as TV, radio, and magazines cut across the accountants' desires to maintain a low profile. How accountants anticipate changes in advertising expenditures, perceive effectiveness of advertising, relate advertising effectiveness with increases in competition, and reasons why accountants do not advertise is the focus of this paper.

Research Instrument

In order to measure professional accountants' perceptions toward advertising, the researchers decided to develop a questionnaire that was divided into three major sections. The first section concerned generic information such as size and location of the firm, while section two and three were addressed by practitioners who did advertise and by practitioners who did not advertise, respectively. The population used in this study was selected from an AICPA publication entitled Accounting Firms and Practitioners. This publication is a directory of all accounting firms and practitioners who are members of the AICPA. A random sample of over five hundred practitioners from the directory were chosen. The reliability and precision demanded by the researchers were 95% and 5% respectively. Thirty-five percent of the accounting practitioners responded to the questionnaire, with the findings presented below.

Findings

Initially, the researchers were concerned that accounting practitioners would confuse prior advertising activities with overt advertising methods authorized by the 1978 Supreme Court ruling. Therefore, in the cover letter, a distinction was made between prior

and post 1978 activities and methods. Once this was established, the researchers concentrated on four basic questions:

I. Anticipated Change in Advertising Expenditures as a Percentage of Gross Income.

II. Perceived Effectiveness of Advertising.

III. Relationship Between Perceived Effectiveness of Advertising and Increases in Competition.

IV. Reasons Why Firms Did Not Advertise.

I. Anticipated Change in Advertising Expenditures as a Percentage of Gross Income.

From the more than five hundred questionnaires sent, 183 accountants responded, of which 38 indicated that they did advertise. While the reasons given will be noted later, it could be stated that most accountants still find advertising unacceptable. Of the 38 respondents who did advertise, 45% indicated that they were increasing their advertising expenditures and 50% indicated that their expenditures would remain the same. Only 5% of the respondents indicated a decrease in advertising expenditures. The respondents who do advertise are sometimes reluctant to reduce advertising expenditures, possibly because of a lack of a precise measuring tool to determine effectiveness.

II. Perceived Effectiveness of Advertising.

The researchers then became concerned with how the respondents perceived the effectiveness of their advertising. A question, developed on a Likert format, was developed. The results are presented below:

Level	Frequency	Percent	Cum Percent
effective	4	10.8	10.8
somewhat effective	15	40.5	51.4
somewhat ineffective	8	21.6	73.0
ineffective	5	13.5	86.5
unsure	5	13.5	100.0
	37		

One respondent failed to address this question thus reducing the total to 37. Two observations can be made from this question when related to previous finding. First, while over 62% of the respondents believe that advertising was very effective or somewhat effective, Question I indicated that only 45% were increasing their advertising expenditure. While the reasons for this may vary, the researchers believe that the respondents were unsure of the effectiveness of their advertising and extensive use of advertising may "rock the boat" within their marketing area and make them a "professional outcast." This fact will be re-emphasized later in this study. Second, in Question I, 5% of those who advertise were

decreasing expenditures while Question II indicated that 35% of the respondents felt that advertising was either ineffective or somewhat ineffective. Evidently the conditions that did not allow the respondents to increase advertising expenditures when they felt that it was effective also limited them from decreasing expenditures when they felt that advertising was ineffective.

III. Relationship Between Perceived Effectiveness and Increases in Competition.

The researchers then related the perceived effectiveness of advertising, which was discussed in Question II, with a question concerning whether the respondent believed that advertising has lead to more competition with other CPA firms. Of concern was whether perceived effectiveness of advertising was influenced by competition. The results are reflected below:

	More Competition	No Change in Competition	
effective	2	2	4
somewhat effective	9	6	15
somewhat ineffective	5	3	8
ineffective	2	3	5
unsure	3	2	5
	21	16	37

The results were inconclusive, for the respondents show no clear indication that perceived effectiveness or ineffectiveness of advertising was influenced by competition. This may be because many of the respondents were small CPA firms and probably the only firm in their marketing area advertising.

IV. Reasons Why Firms Did Not Advertise.

The respondents who did not advertise were asked to indicate the reasons why their firm chose not to advertise. The results, presented below, support some of the old images of advertising that many in the profession still endorse:

	No.	%
Too costly	5	8
Ineffective	54	29
Takes too much time to develop	11	6
Resulting Image is not professional	81	43
Other	27	14
	188	100

Five respondents chose more than one answer which is why 188 responses were recorded. Professionalism, or the lack thereof, is still the major limitation associated with advertising. This may result from the old bias that professionals do not advertise. The second major cause for not advertising was the perceived lack of effectiveness. Some of the respondents noted that advertising would only bring in clients from small businesses who are price sensitive. As one accountant stated"... we do not want to compete with H & R Block for clients."

Observations and Conclusion

Several observations were formulated by the researchers:

1. Many within the accounting profession still believe advertising is not "professional."
2. Of those who do advertise, most believe it is effective and are willing to increase or at least maintain current expenditures.
3. The researchers found that competition had little impact on perceived effectiveness of advertising.

The researchers believe that as the accounting profession becomes more mature in the use of advertising, a larger portion of accountants will begin to perceive advertising as being acceptable and rewarding.

A STUDY OF TEXAS BANKS TO DETERMINE BUSINESS PLAN COMPONENTS FOR THE ENTREPRENEUR PLANNING TO START A SMALL BUSINESS

BY

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A STUDY OF TEXAS BANKS TO DETERMINE BUSINESS PLAN COMPONENTS FOR THE ENTREPRENEUR PLANNING TO START A SMALL BUSINESS

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ABSTRACT

While there is a wealth of knowledge available to Marketing Educators concerning the teaching of the business plan in Entrepreneurship, an insufficient research base exists to validate the content of such teaching. The problem of this study was to identify in a quantifiable manner the components necessary for development of an effective business plan. Two-hundred banks were surveyed and asked to respond to a questionnaire concerning required business plan components. Over 58% of the banks responded and a list of 26 business plan components in descending order of importance was developed.

INTRODUCTION

The teaching of Entrepreneurship in America's secondary schools has become one of today's hottest educational trends. The reason for this interest in Entrepreneurship is due to the realization that small business is very important to the overall economic well being of the country.

Broome, et. al. [1983] reported that small businesses represent 40 - 50% of all American business. These same small businesses account for approximately 34% of our country's employment and create 80% of all new jobs. In addition to employment, small business also accounts for a great deal of innovation. They stimulate competition, aid big business, and are more efficient than larger concerns. In short, our economy would be in serious trouble without the contributions made by small businesses.

There is a problem for small businesses, however. That problem centers around the alarming rate at which they fail. Jenkins and Sexton [1988] report that more than 400,000 new and independent businesses spring up each year. According to numerous published sources, though, it is estimated that 50% of all these new small businesses fail during their first year of operation. Of the 50% that survive the first year, another 30% will fail in the first five years. Only 20% of those entrepreneurs who actually start a small business will still be operating after the initial five year period has passed [Moorman, 1987].

The reason for this rampant rate of small business failure is usually attributed to poor business planning followed by poor management. Many, if not most, entrepreneurs dive right into the complex process of starting and operating a small business without any formal written business plan to guide them. Without planning through their venture, most are doomed from the beginning.

Marketing Educators try to remedy this situation by teaching would be entrepreneurs how to plan and how to manage their future businesses. The managing part of the teaching is reasonably easy given the body of knowledge developed through research over the years. The planning part of the teaching is another matter, however.

This is not to imply that a large volume of research does not exist on the planning function; it does. What does not exist in any quantity is an up-to-date data base on the required components of a business plan for the small business. According to Moorman [1988], one of the best sources for such data is lending officers at local banks. These are, after all, the individuals that deal with small business people on a daily basis. They are in the unique position of knowing what makes the small business person successful and also what contributes to ultimate failure.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

While there is a wealth of knowledge available to Marketing Educators concerning the teaching of Entrepreneurship, an insufficient research base exists to validate the content of such teaching. Especially absent is a concerted effort by Marketing Educators to determine instructional content for the very important planning function of Entrepreneurship. The problem of this study was to identify in a quantifiable manner the components necessary for effective planning by the entrepreneur when a new business start-up is being contemplated.

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

A review of the literature was conducted to identify components of an effective business plan. After the available information was synthesized, a questionnaire was developed to identify those components of the business plan required of entrepreneurs by the lending officers of Texas banks if said entrepreneurs wanted a loan.

A questionnaire [see Table 1 of Results] along with a letter explaining the purpose of the study were mailed to a sample of 200 Texas bank lending officers. The sample was randomly selected from the 1988-89 Texas Banking Red Book [Bankers Digest, 1989] and stratified by geographic regions. Only one lending officer was contacted per bank.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Two hundred questionnaires were sent to bank lending officers in the state of Texas. One hundred and seventeen questionnaires were completed and returned for tabulation. The number returned represented a 58.5% rate of response. The 58.5% return was considered an acceptable rate for purposes of the study.

The narrative of results is reported in nine sections that correlate to the nine sections of the questionnaire. Various comments made by respondents are also included in the narrative section. Two tables - a summary table of results as well as a table of the business plan components follow the Conclusions Section of the paper.

Section I: Of those who responded to this question, 35% said they always require written business plans; 58% said they sometimes require a written plan; and 7% said they never require it. One respondent mentioned that the Small Business Administration packages always require a written business plan as well as all the items on the study's questionnaire. Other respondents said it was a good idea because it adds credibility. Another comment was that a written business plan was a good idea even for an established business.

Section II: The majority of respondents (77%) felt that it was always necessary to include a description of the product or service. One respondent commented that it should

be included if not immediately obvious. The idea history was not considered quite as important with 50% saying that it was always required. A summary of the principles' experience was the most important part of this component with 78% of the respondents saying they always require it.

Section III: One year goals and objectives were always required by 68% of the respondents. Several respondents mentioned that their banks require three year goals. Five year goals were always required by 32% and ten year goals by only 4%. Of interest, however, was the fact that 58% said they never require ten year goals.

Section IV: The marketing plan was considered moderately important with 48% of the respondents saying they always require it. The other three items included in this section were considered less important with a range of 28% to 39% saying they always require them. One respondent commented that consumer demand should be included only if quantifiable; however, information about competition was definitely useful. Also mentioned was the fact that pricing policy information is always important in a competitive market.

Section V: Legal requirements are always required 52% of the time by responding banks and an additional 42% require them sometimes. Other respondents said that they required them if they were pertinent to the on-going nature of the business.

Section VI: Form of ownership proved to be the most required component listed on the questionnaire. Ninety-six

percent of the respondents said that they always require it.

Section VII: Financial plan/requirements were the next most required components on the business plan as indicated by responding banks. An initial capitalization plan is always required 92% of the time. Another 7% requires it sometimes. The projected income statement is always required 89% of the time and required 11% sometimes. The projected operating statement is always required 89% of the time and the cash flow projection always required 90% of the time. The additional observation was made that projected income, operating, and cash flow statements should be included for the first three years of the business with the first year being computed monthly.

Section VIII: Of the five items listed under organization, management, and staffing; the personal financial statements were considered most important. These are always required 81% of the time. References were considered somewhat less important with an always requirement of 63%. Resumes were always required by only 44% of the responding banks.

Section IX: Under special considerations, none of the items were considered important enough to be always required by at least 50% of the responding banks. Three, however, were close to the 50% mark. They were production and manufacturing needs at 43%, facilities needs at 48%, and land and utilities needs at 43%. It is interesting to note in this section that 70% of the responding banks said they

sometimes require education and training needs. That was the highest percentage of any component in the sometimes required column.

In addition to responding to the nine sections of the questionnaire, many respondents wrote notes concerning the business plan. They included comments like: "It is better to overkill than have insufficient information." "Bankers love information that tells that the owner understands his market and what his company is expected to do as an on-going entity."

Several respondents said that start-ups for small businesses are very difficult to finance unless they are strongly capitalized. One respondent said, "Generally, a small business will not be successful when organized due to a combination of poor management and undercapitalization. I do not believe that planning is a determining factor for new business success unless the business is very well capitalized."

CONCLUSIONS

If an entrepreneur plans to ask a bank for financing to start a new business, serious consideration should be given to developing a written business plan. With 93% of responding banks requiring a written plan always or sometimes, the necessity for this is an important conclusion of the study.

Of the nine sections of the business plan covered on the questionnaire, the section on form of ownership was considered the most important. Would be business owners must make a decision concerning this component before approaching a bank for a loan.

Of the remaining eight sections, the one on financial plan/requirements was considered by far the most important. Its importance is due no doubt to the critical role that financial management plays in the ultimate success of any small business.

An additional conclusion of the study was that an entrepreneur's ability to effectively describe and explain the concept history and background to the bank's lending officer is very important to the ultimate outcome of the loan request. The concept history and background plus the experience of the principals' involved in the business are critical variables in the whole process.

Based on numerous comments by respondents and the fact that 81% of them always require a personal financial statement, it can be concluded that the entrepreneur's ability to provide collateral for the loan is an extremely critical variable in the lending process regardless of the quality of the overall planning process.

The final conclusion drawn from the research was that the marketing plan is not considered a critical part of the business planning process. Of the nine sections involved in the business plan, this section was ranked sixth in

importance by the lending officers responding to the questionnaire.

TABLE 1
QUESTIONNAIRE AND RESULTS

Please tell us how often you require the following information for a loan applicant who is starting a new small business. 1=always; 2=sometimes; 3=never	1 %	2 %	3 %
I. Do you require a written business plan?	35	58	7
II. Concept History and Background			
A. Description of product or service	77	20	3
B. Idea history	50	44	7
C. Summary of principals' experience	78	20	2
III. Goals and Objectives			
A. One year	68	28	4
B. Five year	32	59	9
C. Ten year	4	38	58
IV. Marketing Plan			
A. Market profile- consumers and demand	48	45	7
B. Market profile- competitors	39	56	5
C. Geographic market	31	61	8
D. Pricing policy	28	65	7
V. Legal Requirements [patents, copyrights, agreements, etc.]	52	42	6
VI. Form of Ownership	96	2	2
VII. Financial Plan/Requirements			
A. Initial capitalization plan	92	7	1
B. Projected income statement	88	11	1
C. Projected operating statement	89	10	1
D. Cash flow projection	90	9	1
VIII. Organization, Management, and Staffing Plan			
A. Organization chart	31	54	15
B. Resumes	44	52	4
C. Personal financial statements	81	16	3
D. Employee requirements	27	57	16
E. References	63	33	4
IX. Special Considerations			
A. Production and manufacturing needs	43	49	8
B. Facilities needs	48	49	3
C. Education and training needs	16	70	14
D. Land and utilities needs	43	52	5
E. Research and development	21	67	12

TABLE 2

BUSINESS PLAN COMPONENTS [in order of importance] as IDENTIFIED BY TEXAS BANKERS

1. Form of ownership
2. Initial capitalization plan
3. Cash flow projection
4. Projected operating statement
5. Projected income statement
6. Personal financial statements
7. Summary of principals' experience
8. Description of product or service
9. One year goals and objectives
10. References
11. Legal requirements
12. Idea history
13. Market profile - consumers and demand
14. Facilities needs
15. Resumes
16. Production and manufacturing needs
17. Land and utilities needs
18. Market profile - competitors
19. Five year goals and objectives
20. Geographic market
21. Organization chart
22. Pricing policy
23. Employee requirements
24. Research and development
25. Education and training needs
26. Ten year goals and objectives

FOOTNOTES

1. Broome, H.N., Longenecker, J.G., & Moore, C.W. [1983]. Small Business Management. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Company.

2. Jenkins, Michael, & Sexton, Donald [1988]. Starting and Operating a Business in Texas. Milpitas, California: The Oasis Press.

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Perceived Benefits Of Being A State DECA Officer

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to identify and measure specific areas of personal and professional growth experienced by state officers of the Distributive Education Clubs of America. A survey instrument was developed and mailed to state supervisors for further distribution. Selected demographic information was also secured.

The benefits of being a state officer were positive on each personal and professional leadership item, except for two items. Sixteen percent of the respondents reported not being better able to cope with stress or experiencing an increased interest in school. A very significant difference was found between the white and non-white state officers on five items. The non-white respondents experienced more positive growth than the white officers. Being a state officer provided for personal and professional growth for each student in the areas of leadership development, vocational understanding, civic consciousness and social intelligence.

Perceived Benefits of Being a State DECA Officer

Vocational education acts, state departments of education, the American Vocational Association and former Secretary of Education, William Bennent, all attest, by their words and actions, to the value students receive by being involved with vocational student organizations (VSO). Past research in vocational education, and more specifically, research in marketing education has provided an evaluation of the excellent benefits derived from VSO membership.

Studies by Smith (1985), Clark (1978) and McLean (1973) support the major goal of Distributive Education Clubs of America as being an integral, co-curricular part of marketing education to enhance student development of survival and success skills for the work world. Marie Burbach (1987), in her role as Chairperson of the National DECA Board of Directors, has called for continuous efforts to sustain the student value of DECA participation. Samson (1983) discusses the need to show how marketing education's curriculum will help in developing specific personal and job skills, all with rigor and measurable standards.

Smith, et. al. (1985) found that benefits of DECA membership are perceived to be differentially distributed, with officers realizing more benefits and greater achievement than other members. The researchers suggest additional research, among other considerations, to determine the officer's opinions on perceived benefits, which will in turn, hopefully, help reestablish the overall value of VSO involvement. This study identified and measured self perceived benefits for state DECA officers. The researchers felt this group of marketing education officers should represent the highest level of involvement, and therefore satisfaction with DECA.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

This study was conducted to provide information to marketing education personnel relative to the value of being a DECA member, and more specifically a state officer. This information can be used to assist in making meaningful, informative decisions and recommendations regarding future directions for DECA involvement at the local and state levels, and possibly at the national level.

METHODOLOGY

Instrumentation

A questionnaire was developed to secure data. The questionnaire consisted of six demographic questions and forty-one questions or statements relating to the perceived value of being a state DECA officer. The questionnaire was subjected to two field tests for face validity. Three teacher coordinators and four college students reacted to the original questionnaire at the University of Georgia. At the same time, ten former DECA officers; two state, three high school, two post-secondary and three collegiate, provided inputs at the University of Wisconsin-Stout. The researchers combined the suggestions from the two field tests to design and develop the final questionnaire.

Population

Each state DECA association has a group of state officers. The number of state officers in each state vary in number from six to eight. The population for this study consisted of all present state officers from the fifty four member state associations in the secondary division of DECA for the 1986-87 school year.

Data Collection

Head state supervisors of marketing education were requested to assist in distributing the questionnaires to their respective state officers. Eight questionnaires were mailed to each state supervisor with a request to give the questionnaire to their respective officers. Self-addressed stamped envelopes were provided to facilitate handling. Some state supervisors distributed the questionnaires at officer meetings while others mailed the questionnaires to each officer with instructions to return the completed questionnaires to the researchers. Several state supervisors elected to not take part in the research.

A total of 148 questionnaires were returned. Of this number, six were invalidated because of being incomplete or improperly completed. The respondents represented state officers from thirty six state associations of DECA.

Data Analysis

The completed questionnaire information was transferred to scan sheets and was subjected to statistical analysis at the University of Wisconsin-Stout Computer Center. Simple and inferential statistics were employed. The simple statistics included frequency counts, percentages, means and standard deviations. The inferential

statistics included one way analysis of variance to ascertain significant statistical difference between the following: males and females, race, high school enrollment and community population. The Newman-Kuels Multiple Comparison Test was used to further analyze the means that were significantly different at the .05 level. The Cronback Alpha formula was used to compute the internal consistency reliability coefficient estimate of the instrument. A reliable coefficient of .8053 was obtained.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings presented here are based on the responses of 142 state officers from 36 state associations of DECA. The data are initially presented in four tables that present responses to all questions and statements on the questionnaire.

Table I allows the reader to develop a composite view of who constitutes a state DECA officer. The majority of office holders are female, 18 years old, white, from a high school of 1501-2000 enrollment, from a home community of 10,000-49,999 people and have an average grade point average of 3.17 on a four point scale.

Table 1

Demographic Information

1. Sex	n	%
Male	47	33.1
Female	95	66.9
N	142	

2. Age	n	%
17	40	31.3
18	72	56.3
19	5	3.9
20	1	.7
Over 21	10	7.8
N	132	

3. Race	n	%
Black	18	12.9
Hispanic	6	4.3
White	112	80.56
Other	3	2.2
N	139	

4. H.S. GPA	n	%
3 pt. scale	3	2.9
4 pt. scale	134	97.1
N	138	

5. High School Enrollment No. of Students	n	%
less than 500	12	8.7
500-1,000	30	21.7
1,001-1,500	25	18.1
1,501-2,000	39	28.3
Over 2,000	32	23.2
N	138	

6. Population of Home Community Population	n	%
less than 10,000	21	16.4
10,000-49,999	42	32.8
50,000-99,999	23	17.9
100,000-500,000	21	16.4
Over 500,000	21	16.4
N	128	

Table II depicts the respondents' answers to a series of nine yes or no questions relating to the election process and career-college choices. Eighty-seven percent of the state officers had previously held leadership positions in other organizations. An amazing 40% of the responding state officers did not intend to work in the field of marketing as a career before they were elected to office. Being an officer further encouraged most students to attend college, and of those not intending to initially pursue college, 77% changed their mind and do plan to seek a college education. An overwhelming 99% said they would run for office again. Seventy percent stated the chapter advisor had the greatest influence in encouraging them to run for state office.

Table III highlights a group of 19 statements that impact on how being a state officer has personally affected the respondents. The results develop a highly positive picture on a variety of characteristics, but being an officer did not help many students decide to become a vocational education teacher. Eighty seven percent felt their grades in high school did not suffer as a result of being a state officer and a large majority increased their interest in school. Another interesting finding was that 16.9 % felt that being a state officer did not help them to personally deal with stress.

Table III

Serving As A State Officer

	Items	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree		n
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
1.	Increased self confidence	-	-	-	1	4	12	32	83	132
2.	Felt better about self	-	-	-	1	8	31	40	62	142
3.	More effective public speaker	-	-	-	1	7	22	28	84	142
4.	Learn leadership skills for groups	-	-	-	1	9	21	38	74	142
5.	Better follower	-	-	4	4	13	40	44	36	141
6.	More effective team member	-	-	-	1	3	30	49	54	142
7.	Better long-range planner	-	1	1	4	14	46	35	41	142
8.	Cope with stress	3	-	3	18	25	31	32	30	142
9.	Manage responsibility	-	-	1	1	12	26	36	66	142
10.	Conduct meetings	-	-	-	1	10	29	32	70	142
11.	More civic minded	-	1	1	2	19	38	30	51	142
12.	Increased social skills	-	-	-	6	4	32	33	67	142
13.	More self disciplined	1	-	-	5	15	33	36	52	142
14.	Increased interest in school	3	-	2	18	26	32	29	32	142
15.	Aware of value of competition	-	2	-	3	14	32	34	57	142
16.	Increased awareness of free enterprise system	-	-	-	3	13	21	31	74	142
17.	Firm up career plans	3	-	1	9	13	18	27	71	142
18.	Help to decide to become a vocational teacher	42	7	25	31	12	8	9	8	142
19.	Grades suffered	58	25	21	20	7	5	2	4	142

State DECA Officer Benefits

Table IV shows state officer perceptions regarding support they received while serving as an officer, and also gives answers to general questions relative to holding state office. While officers received a great deal of help from their teacher-coordinators, state supervisors and teacher educators, they did not receive enough financial support from their local schools. Officers were very sure that holding office helped them to be more certain about their career goals. Due to limited family financial support, most state officers feel that local school systems should provide additional funds. All of the respondents felt more emphasis should go to helping local chapter members to become actively involved in chapter activities. Only 12.6% felt too much emphasis was placed on winning competitive events.

Table IV

Personal Opinions

	Items	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree		n
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
20.	Help from chapter advisor	2	1	-	4	13	23	22	77	142
21.	Help from state advisor	3	1	5	5	12	25	29	62	142
22.	Help from teacher educator	4	5	4	14	22	36	27	30	142
23.	Financial support from local school	29	10	12	7	25	20	19	19	141
24.	Days absent excessive	37	18	23	29	14	12	1	7	141
25.	Too much emphasis on winning competitive events	44	20	31	29	7	8	0	3	142
26.	More recognition to state officers that participate in competitive events	20	16	22	20	20	22	9	12	141
27.	More emphasis should go to developing local officer leadership	-	1	3	3	26	27	24	58	142
28.	More emphasis should go to helping local club members to become actively involved in club activities	-	-	-	-	6	22	36	78	142
29.	Limited family financial support restricts some students from participation in national events	3	3	7	11	27	17	18	56	142
30.	Local school system should provide funds for state officers instead of local club funds	8	4	7	23	20	23	14	41	140
31.	Teacher educators should be more available to work with state officers	1	3	5	16	39	31	23	23	141
32.	More certain about personal goals	-	-	-	2	6	22	27	85	142

Group Comparisons for Significant Differences

No significant differences were determined for any questions when male-female comparisons were calculated. When comparing white to others, however, 16 of the 32 statements that are shown in Tables III and IV were significantly different at the .Ø5 level for these two groups. Without exception, the group classified as other agreed more strongly with the statement. A logical conclusion is that the other group received more benefit from being a state officer than the white group. Table V shows the differences between groups on five different statements that were highly significant.

Table V

Highly Significant Statements

Statement	White	Other	Calculated F Value	Exact Probability
Learn skills to conduct meetings	Mean 6.9 S.D. 1.0	7.7 .5	15.16	.0004
Become more self disciplined	Mean 6.6 S.D. 1.2	7.4 .6	11.31	.0014
Better long range planner	Mean 6.5 S.D. 1.1	7.1 .9	7.17	.0082
Increased my social skills	Mean 6.9 S.D. 1.1	7.5 .6	6.92	.0093
Provide leadership to groups	Mean 7.1 S.D. .9	7.6 .6	6.83	.0097

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT AND COMMUNITY POPULATION

Three statements were significant at the .Ø5 level for the enrollment group, and the same number was true for the population group. In each group, the officers from the larger schools and communities agreed more strongly with the statements than officers from smaller schools and communities.

Officers from high schools with large enrollments felt they received a great deal of help from teacher educators, and they agreed strongly that they wanted even more help from them. The officers also thought officers that participate in competitive events should receive more recognition.

Officers from large cities felt they received a great deal of help from teacner educators, and also state supervisors. These officers also thougnt their school systems should provide more financial support for tnem.

The above examples highlight more officer benefit perceptions from large high schools and communities.

IMPLICATIONS

Marketing education students that had the opportunity to serve as state DECA officers perceived their benefits in a very positive way. While this might be expected from students in this position of leadership, the degree of satisfaction (99%) was much higher than the researchers' expectations. This lends credence to the statement by Foster et.al. (1983) that different populations have different perceptions depending upon their values and experiences with an organization, institution or program. This study also supports Smith et.al. (1985) in their finding that officers realize greater achievement than other DECA members. This was especially true and stimulating when consideration is given to the omnifarious questions and statements involved in this study.

The personal growth benefits of being a state DECA officer are evident from the results of this research. Officers indicated strong agreement regarding their knowledge and skill improvement in leadership development, vocational understanding, civic consciousness and social intelligence. Therefore,

being a state DECA officer further adds to the personal growth for each person for each of the four points of the DECA Diamond.

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A Research Paper:

Researching The Need For Computer-Aided Curriculum Planning For Pennsylvania Marketing Education Teachers

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ABSTRACT

This research study was conducted to: (1) identify current levels of computer utilization among marketing teachers; (2) ascertain the "demand" for software for writing competency-based vocational curriculum, and (3) to develop software based on Interstate Distributive Education Curriculum Consortium (IDECC) competency-based materials. The sample for this study consisted of all 134 secondary marketing education teachers in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.Based on the results of this investigation the following conclusions are drawn.

1. Computers are useful in providing marketing programs.

2. Teachers with Bachelor's and Doctor's degrees perceive computers to be more useful in managing student grading systems.

3. Marketing education teachers from Area Vocational-Technical Schools are more computer willing.

4. Marketing education teachers from one year vocational programs are less computer willing than marketing teachers from two and three year programs.

5. Marketing education teachers in the Central and Western portions of Pennsylvania are more computer willing than their Eastern colleagues.

6. Users of IDECC materials are loyal to the IDECC product at the elementary and advanced level applications of the materials.

INTRODUCTION

This paper describes research conducted as part of the Marketing Education Computer Curriculum Project. The project, funded by the Pennsylvania Department of Education, Bureau of Adult and Vocational Education, was to: (1) identify current levels of computer utilization among marketing teachers; (2) ascertain the "demand" for software for writing competency-based vocational curriculum, and (3) to develop software based on Interstate Distributive Education Curriculum Consortium (IDECC) competency-based materials. This paper reports the results of the demand for computer-aided curriculum writing among marketing education teachers.

Statement of the Problem

Some teachers from elementary to post-secondary levels are equipping their students in the technological revolution by integrating computers with curriculum and instruction (Donhardt, 1984). This is especially important in marketing education where many jobs demand knowledge and use of computers.

Marketing teachers face several problems that can be at least partially solved by using computers. In Pennsylvania, teachers are required to prepare curricula in a prescribed competency-based instructional (CBI) format (Chapter 6 Regulations and Standards, 1985). Preparation of CBI materials without the use of computer technology is at best laborious.

The Marketing Education Association of Pennsylvania, at its annual meeting in 1987, stated that Pennsylvania secondary marketing teachers' efforts to utilize computers are restricted by: (1) ineffective software programs; (2) lack of teacher time; and (3) poor teacher computer expertise. Other research has indicated that secondary marketing teachers have expressed the need for assistance in developing curriculum and managing programs with the support of computers (Stone, 1985).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research is to:

1. Construct a valid and reliable instrument for assessing the computer curriculum needs of Pennsylvania secondary marketing education teachers;

2. Collect empirical data regarding the current level of computer attitudes, literacy, use, and existence among Pennsylvania secondary marketing education teachers for the purpose of ascertaining characteristics of teachers most likely to use computers in instruction, curriculum development, and classroom management; and

3. Analyze survey results for the purpose of making recommendations for who would use new curriculum development software, and subsequent in-service training.

Specifically, this study was organized to answer the following questions. To what extent are there differences among current marketing education teachers:

1. By demographic characteristics such as age, sex, educational level, type of school, years teaching experience, program length, school

neighborhood, state location, use of IDECC in curriculum, and the level of IDECC materials taught?

2. On current computer philosophy in marketing education? and

3. On current computer usage in marketing education?

Statement of Hypotheses

For the purposes of statistical analysis, the following null hypotheses were tested at the .05 and .01 level of significance for research questions 2 and 3. Those nulls are:

HO1: There are no significant differences in the mean responses of Pennsylvania marketing education teachers on current computer philosophy in marketing education as measured by the Computer Curriculum Project Survey.

HO2: There are no significant differences in the mean responses of Pennsylvania marketing education teachers on current computer usage in marketing education as measured by the Computer Curriculum Project Survey.

Limitations

This study involved all Pennsylvania marketing education teachers. Generalizations beyond this group are valid insofar as the participants in this group are representative of other populations. Other constraints include:

1. The accuracy of the self-report data from teachers on school neighborhood location and state location; and

2. The manner in which teachers interpreted and responded to the items on the survey instrument.

Definition of Terms

The following terms were employed in the conduct of the study.

Classroom/Project Management is continuous monitoring of instructional goals and also placement of student in work consistent with career goals.

Competency-based Curriculum is instruction designed to equip students with skills required for entry level employment or advanced study at postsecondary schools (Finch & Crunkilton, 1984).

Curriculum Development is continuous updating of CBI instructional material designed with assistance of advisory committees in order to prepare students for employment.

Computer is an electronic device consisting of a keyboard, monitor, disk drive and printer that can store, retrieve, and process data.

Degree of Usefulness is a numerical rating on a Likert-like scale from one (low) to five (high) to ascertain any benefits in using computers for CBI curriculum development.

Philosophy is a belief in meaningful and purposeful instructional methods exemplified through practical application in the classroom.

Secondary Marketing Education is a program of study, within a Pennsylvania comprehensive high school or area vocational technical school (AVTS), designed to prepare students for careers in retailing, sales, and service occupations (IDECC, 1987).

RELATED RESEARCH FINDINGS

Marketing education, a program that prepares secondary students for entry level sales and service occupations in business and industry, is

responsible for meeting employment needs of students and employers. The use of computers is necessary to remain competitive in the work force. Secondary marketing programs, therefore, must provide practical computer skills (Russell, 1982) without duplicating computer training courses in other established programs. Recognizing the need to integrate computers in secondary marketing education curriculum, vocational education researchers and teacher educators have conducted research studies and written reports based on first hand observations of current programs concerning the development and improvement of marketing education computer curriculum.

Searle (1986) conducted a nation-wide study to determine the hardware, software, and teacher in-service needs of a secondary marketing education program. A survey was developed and sent to 42 states with secondary marketing education state advisors. These advisors were asked to randomly select 10 secondary marketing teachers to respond to the survey. This procedure yielded a total of 420 participants, however, only 225 (54%) usable returns were evaluated and tabulated. The survey collected data in six categories: hardware, instructional software, operations software, teacher experience, in-service needs, and computer availability. The most used computers were Apple, IBM PC, and the Tandy TRS 80 with the Apple II being used in over half of the schools surveyed.

Instructional software included programs developed for sales, economics, entrepreneurship, management, and general principles of marketing with small groups as the most preferred method of instruction.

Operations software consisted of programs that assist the teacher with program management, development of test banks, and grading.

In Searle's research, the average teacher had 9.8 years of classroom experience with 60% reporting that they needed to learn how to operate computers; this, in addition to software selection was indicated as the most important in-service need. All of the teachers had access to computers, 75% had the hardware in their classes while the remaining 25% scheduled computer time with other departments in their schools.

The conclusion of Searle's study is that secondary marketing teachers are attempting to integrate computers in the curriculum, however, they needed assistance with learning how to operate computers and selecting software. In order to accomplish this, Searle recommends that state departments of education and university teacher education programs prepare teachers more effectively. In addition, local school districts should provide the necessary equipment and facilities.

DuBois and Schubert (1986) conducted a study which revealed that inequality exists in computer access for different students within local school districts. The inequality is caused by local economic conditions and actions of administrators.

Poorer school districts have one computer for an average of 73 students while the wealthier school districts have an average of 54 students sharing a computer. The result for students in economically disadvantaged schools is that they receive fewer hours of instruction and miss opportunities for developing advanced programming skills. DuBois and Schubert assert that school administrators often establish

policies regarding computer usage which may treat disadvantaged students unfairly. Some students are not permitted to operate computers unless a minimum competency level is achieved. These students would benefit from remedial computer assisted instruction and the computer would function as a motivational tool. Also, students with behavior problems were frequently not permitted to operate computers as punishment. Many of these students were found to have motivational problems which could have been resolved by making learning more interesting.

Computers were discovered to be incorrectly placed in classrooms with teachers who have no computer skills and the schools did not provide in-service training programs on their operation. Some teachers were reluctant to integrate computers with the curriculum while others refused stating that their contracts did not require them to do so.

DuBois and Schubert recommend that administration reevaluate programs and teachers' computer literacy skills in order to place this hardware in the most effective environment and provide training for teachers in computer operation. Teachers should monitor student competency levels and learning styles, and provide, if possible, individual instruction for those with learning and behavior problems.

Although administrators and teachers are aware of the need to integrate computers with curriculum, some teachers use them as baby sitters in which the students play video games because of the teachers' lack of operating skills (Young, 1987). The need for in-service computer classes for teachers is once again indicated.

Donhardt (1984) writes that a computer-based curriculum must ultimately provide for the needs of the students and accomplish three goals. The computer curriculum must:

1. Have specific educational objectives;

2. Document what the students will learn by interacting with computers; and

3. Include standards by which a computer-based curriculum can be measured so that future needs assessments may be achieved.

Computer-based curriculum in marketing education helps the student meet specific educational objectives by teaching content with computer assisted instruction while developing computer skills necessary to obtain employment upon graduation. Employers want to hire workers with these skills rather than spend valuable time and money to train their recruits (Heath, 1988). Instructional software programs have been developed to simulate conditions requiring such skills in the business environment. In marketing education, the computer-based curriculum may be measured by the competency level achieved in these software programs and by the number of students placed on jobs after graduation.

Stone (1984), recognizing the need to improve marketing education curriculum, developed a 134 item survey designed to identify the curriculum areas most needing improvement. The survey was developed by experts from secondary marketing education and business and industry, and administered at the 1984 National Marketing Education Curriculum Conference in Atlanta, Georgia. The participants were asked to respond to each item using a five point Likert-type agreement scale, (1 =

strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Items were considered to be in need of improvement if they achieved a mean score of 3.5. The total number of participants was 261 with the secondary marketing teachers representing the largest group (39%) to respond. The following items needing improvement are listed with their respective mean scores:

1. Integrating computers in the curriculum, (4.5);
2. Curriculum must be research oriented, (4.5);
3. Periodic program evaluation is necessary, (4.5).
4. Computers are required for jobs, (4.3);
5. Software needs to be developed, (4.2);
6. Administrative support is needed, (4.2);

The results indicate that each of the items exceed the minimum established mean score of 3.5 for needing improvement.

Mahan (1982) surveyed 202 secondary marketing teachers in Pennsylvania regarding the effectiveness of IDECC Learning Activity Packets (LAPS). Ten instructional uses of the LAPS were identified by the teachers and integrating computers with this curriculum tool was listed as number seven by 29 of the 161 teachers who responded to the survey. This was significant, according to Mahan, because education was just beginning to include the use of computers in the classroom.

Heath (1982) reported to marketing teacher educators at the American Vocational Conference in St. Louis, Missouri that the most important uses of computers in secondary marketing programs include computer assisted instruction, occupational tools to help students obtain employment, and management of marketing education programs. This

information, based upon data obtained from the National Center for Educational Statistics (1980), supports the development of computer curriculum systems for secondary marketing education.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The review of the literature revealed no suitable instrument for collecting data to analyze demographic characteristics, computer philosophy, and use of computers among Pennsylvania marketing education teachers. This resulted in the development of a researcher-made instrument using the variables suggested in the related literature. The instrument was edited to comply with the informal criteria for attitude statements developed by Edwards (1957).

Instrument Validity & Reliability

A draft of the survey instrument was constructed at the University. To establish the content validity of the instrument the draft was mailed to a panel of experts for their review prior to meeting as a group (Borg & Gall, 1983). The panel consisted of four marketing educators (two from comprehensive high schools and two from area vocational-technical schools) two representatives of business and a representative of the Western Regional Office of the Pennsylvania Department of Education. On January 16, 1988 a the draft was reviewed and approved by the panel.

An estimate of the instrument's reliability was obtained using a test-retest technique (Borg & Gall, 1983). The estimate of reliability was ascertained by randomly selecting 10% of the sample (Gay, 1987), and administering the instrument as a re-test. The resulting reliability coefficient was .77.

The instrument was comprised of three sections including: 1) Demographics; 2) Computer philosophy in marketing education; and 3) Computer usage in marketing education. Part I, was designed to provide background information concerning the teachers' age, sex, educational level, and years of teaching experience; location and type of school; program length; and use of the IDECC curriculum as core or secondary marketing education curriculum development and classroom/program management.

Part II consists of eight questions with a rating scale ranging from one (low) to five (high). The participants responded by circling the number which most accurately described their assessment of the question.

Part III collected data regarding the type of computer hardware and software currently being used, as well as their instructional application. A copy of the instrument is attached.

Population

The sample for this study consisted of all 134 secondary marketing education teachers in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania listed in the most recent (1986) Marketing Education Association of Pennsylvania Directory of teachers.

Data Collection Procedures

Data were collected using a cover letter, the survey, and a stamped self-addressed return envelope. As an inducement to return a completed survey, a copy of the IDECC Competencies that comprise the Pennsylvania Scope of Instruction for Marketing Education was enclosed as a gift.

The instruments were prepared for mailing with a code number for each teacher.

Design of the Study

The study was conducted as an ex post facto design. Conclusions about the observed relationships are not based on any direct intervention in the variables (Kerlinger, 1964).

Statistical Treatment of the Data

The data were analyzed using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) (Bartz, 1981). Findings that were statistically significant were subjected to the Tukey Post hoc method for unequal N's. (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1979). The analysis was conducted using Lotus 1-2-3 spreadsheet software and an IBM microcomputer.

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND RESULTS

Telephone follow-up and additional mailings finally yielded a return of 90 instruments or 69% of the universe. Sixteen were not usable because of missing data resulting in 74 (55.2%) surveys usable for analysis.

Using Lotus 1-2-3 the data were sorted on each of the demographic variables from Part 1 of the survey. Included were: 1) age; 2) sex; 3) education level; 4) type of school; 5) years teaching experience; 6) program length; 7) school neighborhood; 8) State location; 9) IDECC use; and 10) IDECC level utilized.

Because we are concerned with ascertaining the level of agreement on the use of microcomputers among marketing educators, and we wanted to know who would value new instructional management software, it was

necessary to conduct analysis of these identifying characteristics. This activity resembled a market survey for any new product. These demographic characteristics became our independent variables. The dependent variables were the questions asked on our survey.

Descriptive Data

By observation of overall means, we were able to ascertain some interesting information about present computer use and future expectations. All respondents indicated favorable responses to all questions pertaining to computer utilization in their classroom. Only one mean was less than three on our five station Likert-like scale with five meaning "high degree" of usage or "Very Useful". Additionally, there was almost universal agreement that marketing education curricula should include computer usage (mean = 4.4) and most reported that their district's philosophy includes mastery of computer skills (mean = 3.9).

Also, Pennsylvania marketing education teachers reported that they perceived microcomputers as important for classroom instruction (mean = 3.8) and further, computers are important to classroom and/or program management (mean = 3.5). To a lesser degree, respondents indicated that they perceived themselves as "proficient" when using computers (mean = 3.2).

Regarding computer usage, the Apple II is the most widely used followed by the Tandy 100SX and then the IBM PC. Additionally, only 10% of the teachers have a modem connection for transmitting and receiving computer data via telephone lines.

Not all of the general observations were good. Respondents rated the computer proficiency of their students relatively low (mean 2.7). Perhaps a related observation is a relatively few number of weekly hours devoted to computer-aided instruction (mean = 3.8 hours per week). This seems to indicate a limited use of computers for computer-aided or individualized instruction.

Testing The Hypotheses

Two null hypotheses were tested at the .05 and the .01 levels of significance. Those nulls were:

HO1:There are no significant differences in the mean responses of Pennsylvania marketing education teachers on current computer philosophy in marketing education as measured by the Computer Curriculum Project Survey.

HO2:There are no significant differences in the mean responses of Pennsylvania marketing education teachers on current computer usage in marketing education as measured by the Computer Curriculum Project Survey.

The results of the one-way analysis of variance are presented in Tables 1 through 13. Significant F values were found on seven of the ten independent variables resulting in the rejection of null hypotheses 1 and 2.

In the following discussion the analysis of variance for each of the ten independent variables is presented. Included as independent variables are: 1) age; 2) sex; 3) education level; 4) type of school; 5) years teaching experience; 6) program length; 7) school neighborhood; 8)

state location; 9) IDECC use; and 10) IDECC level utilized.

1. Age. Only one dependent variable was found to be significant -- the use of computers in managing local reports. The group was stratified by decade of age. Younger (20's) and older (50+) teachers perceived computers to be more useful in managing reporting requirements than did teachers in the middle years (30's & 40's). The results of that ANOVA are presented on Chart 1.

Chart 1:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Using Computers For Managing Local Reporting

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	3	10.35	3.45	3.57 *
Within Groups	70	67.60	.97	
Totals	73	77.95		

* Significant $p < .05$

2. Sex. Men and women generally responded to the survey in the same way resulting in no statistically significant findings.

3. Education Level. Only one dependent variable was found to be significant -- the use of computer in managing grading systems. Teachers were stratified by highest degrees held. Those with Bachelor's and those with Doctor's degrees perceive computers to be more useful in managing student grading systems than do those with Master's degrees. The results of the ANOVA are presented on Chart 2.

Chart 2:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Using Computers For Managing Grading Systems

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	2	7.82	3.91	3.85 *
Within Groups	71	72.17	1.01	
Totals	73	79.99		

Significant $p < .05$

4. Type School. Significant differences were found on four dependent variables where AVTS marketing education teachers were more willing to use computers in designing instruction and managing their classroom then are their colleagues from comprehensive high schools. AVTS teachers are more likely to use: 1) computers in managing the school store; 2) the provided IDECC Competencies for curriculum planning; 3) computers in managing student competency records; 4) computers in managing provided IDECC Competencies for the Pennsylvania Scope of Instruction. The results of those ANOVAs are presented on Charts 3, 4, 5, and 6.

Chart 3:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Using Computers For Managing School Stores

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	1	9.10	9.10	7.91 *
Within Groups	72	82.84	1.50	
Totals	73	91.94		

Significant $p < .01$

Chart 4:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Using Computers For Managing Student Competency Records

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	1	6.57	5.57	7.47 *
Within Groups	72	63.36	.88	
Totals	73	69.93		

* Significant $p < .01$

Chart 5:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Using IDECC Competencies For Curriculum Planning

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	1	5.09	5.09	5.32 *
Within Groups	72	68.86	.95	
Totals	73	73.95		

* Significant $p < .05$

Chart 6:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Using Computers For Managing IDECC Competencies

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	1	3.97	3.97	4.56 *
Within Groups	72	62.69	.88	
Totals	73	66.66		

* Significant $p < .05$

5. Years Teaching Experience. After stratifying all respondents into 6 groups (1-5 yrs; 6-10 yrs; 11-15 yrs; 16-20 yrs; and 20 yrs +), no significant differences were found on any of the dependent variables.

6. Program Level. When respondents were sorted into their corresponding program length, two areas of significance were discovered. Marketing Teachers in one year programs are much less likely to use computers in managing their program or to use computers in maintaining student placement records than were their colleagues teaching in two or three year programs. The results of those ANOVAs are presented on Charts 7 and 8.

Chart 7:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Using Computers For Managing Coop Placements

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	2	8.05	4.03	3.42 *
Within Groups	71	83.35	1.17	
Totals	73	91.40		

Significant $p < .05$

Chart 8:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Using Computers For Program Management

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	2	13.34	6.67	6.52 *
Within Groups	71	72.66	1.02	
Totals	73	86.00		

Significant $p < .01$

7. School Neighborhood. After categorizing and sorting all responding schools into urban, suburban, or rural neighborhood, no significant differences were found on any of the dependent variables.

8. School Location in the State. When sorted by state geographical location (Western; Central; and Eastern Pennsylvania) it is found that marketing teachers in the central and western portions of the state are more likely to use computers in: 1) managing their program; 2) student competency reporting; and 3) generating local reports. In all cases, Central and Western Pennsylvania Marketing Teachers reported more computer willingness than did their eastern colleagues. Also, Eastern Pennsylvania teachers rated themselves as least proficient in the use of computers among the three groups (Eastern mean = 2.8). The results of hose ANOVAs are presented in Charts 9, 10, and 11.

Chart 9:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Using Computers For Program Management

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	2	8.91	4.45	4.10
Within Groups	71	77.10	1.06	
Totals	73	86.01		

Significant $p < .05$

Chart 10:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Using Computers For Managing Student Competency Records

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	2	7.57	3.87	4.31 *
Within Groups	71	62.37	.87	
Totals	73	69.94		

* Significant $p < .05$

Chart 11:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Using Computers For Managing Local Reports

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	2	7.75	3.87	3.95 *
Within Groups	71	69.59	.98	
Totals	73	77.34		

* Significant $p < .05$

9. IDECC Use. The authors of IDECC recommend that it be used as core or supplemental curricula. Other teachers do not use IDECC at all. When respondents were sorted into their level of IDECC use, those using the materials as core or supplemental are more willing to use the IDECC Competencies provided as an inducement to return the survey in curriculum planning than were their colleagues that do not use IDECC at all. The results of that ANOVA are presented on Chart 12.

Chart 12:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Use of IDECC Competencies For Curriculum Planning

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	2	14.43	7.21	8.60 *
Within Groups	71	59.95	.83	
Totals	73	74.38		

*

Significant $p < .01$

10. IDECC Level. The authors of IDECC also have configured their materials to allow for elementary or advanced use of their materials. For example, Entry Level skills are the most elementary and Manager-Entrepreneur the most sophisticated. When sorted by IDECC level, respondents using the Career Sustaining level (second easiest) were more likely to use the provided IDECC competencies in curriculum planning then were their colleagues using the materials at other levels. The results of that ANOVA are presented on Chart 13.

Chart 13:
Analysis of Variance for the Dependent Variable
Use of Provided IDECC Competencies For Curriculum Planning

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Value
Between Groups	4	14.96	3.75	4.37 *
Within Groups	69	58.99	.85	
Totals	73	73.95		

*

Significant $p < .01$

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Findings

Two null hypotheses were tested in this study. As a result of the statistical analysis both nulls were rejected.

Conclusions

Based on the results of this investigation and the assumptions and limitations discussed earlier, the following conclusions have been drawn.

1. Generally, responding teachers regard microcomputers as useful in providing marketing education programs.

2. Teachers perceived their students to be less computer proficient than their self-perceived computer proficiency.

3. Younger (20's) and older (50's+) marketing education teachers perceived computers to be more useful in managing local reporting requirements than did teachers in the middle years (30's and 40's).

4. Marketing education teachers with Bachelor's and Doctor's degrees perceive computers to be more useful in managing student grading systems than do their colleagues with Master's degrees.

5. Marketing education teachers from Area Vocational-Technical Schools are more willing than the comprehensive high school marketing teachers to use: 1) computers in managing the school store; 2) the provided IDECC competencies in curriculum planning; 3) computers in managing student competency records; and 4) computers in managing provided IDECC Competencies for the Pennsylvania Scope of Instruction.

6. Marketing education teachers from one year vocational programs are less willing than marketing teachers from two and three year programs to use computers in program management or in maintaining student placement records.

7. Marketing education teachers in the Central and Western portions of Pennsylvania are more willing than their Eastern colleagues to use computers in: 1) managing their program; 2) student competency reporting; and 3) generating local reports.

8. Users of IDECC materials are loyal to the IDECC product at the elementary and advanced level applications of the materials.

Implications and Recommendations For Further Study

Several implications can be drawn from the results of this study. First the results should be viewed as generally consistent with the existing literature describing computer use among marketing education teachers. Our findings confirm a relatively high level of current computer use among Pennsylvania Marketing Educators and a positive perception regarding the use of computers in instruction and management of marketing programs.

The second purpose of this study was to ascertain "demand" for further computer software to assist in curriculum development. Our findings document a strong demand for such software among selected Pennsylvania marketing education teachers. To meet this "demand", the Center for Vocational Personnel Development at the University of Pittsburgh is developing the Pennsylvania Marketing Education Computer Curriculum System (PENNMECCS). This software will assist all vocational

teachers in developing and documenting competency-based vocational instructional programs that are in compliance with Pennsylvania state regulations. The software will be distributed free of charge to any Pennsylvania marketing education teacher.

The third purpose was to meet any demand for software for those marketing education teachers using the IDECC system which is the core of the Pennsylvania Scope of Instruction for marketing education programs. Considering the wide and loyal use of IDECC materials, the PENNMECCS program is being developed with a companion disk containing IDECC competencies and objectives. This disk will be made available with the software.

Other implications of the study include: 1) audiences for computer in-service training; and 2) the use of computers for instruction and instructional management.

Because selected teachers are less willing to use computers those individuals will be the core of the audience. For example, future in-service training will be targeted to the needs of marketing teachers of the comprehensive program. Where practical, AVTS teacher who may be more computer proficient, will be used as role models and workshop presenters.

A final implication centers on the importance that teachers place on using computers for instruction and program management. The respondents indicate a willingness and need to use computers for managing local reporting, student competency records, grading systems, student placement in coop and regular jobs, career planning, and school store

operations. Future in-service training will seek to illustrate these applications of the microcomputer technology.

As a result of this research, several areas for future research have been identified. Those are: 1) the difference between the perceived computer proficiency of teachers and students; 2) the true nature of the apparent difference in computer willingness among teachers with Bachelor's and Doctor's Degrees when compared with their colleagues with Master's Degrees; and 3) what are the implications for marketing teacher education given the current age of practicing teachers.

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Job Satisfaction of Secondary Marketing Educators in Northwest Ohio

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Abstract

This study investigated job satisfaction of secondary marketing educators. A mail survey of all high school Northwest Ohio marketing educators using an instrument developed by the researcher was conducted in October, 1988. The instructors were satisfied. However, they were dissatisfied with teaching as a profession. Females were more satisfied with their teaching assignments than males ($p < .05$). This study verified research of the early 1970's that found high satisfaction levels among teachers. However, the gradual decline of teacher satisfaction after that time was not corroborated. To improve teacher satisfaction, salary, advancement opportunities, and the status of the teacher need to be improved.

Job Satisfaction of Secondary Marketing Educators in Northwest Ohio

At the end of the last decade, the National Education Association (1979) released its latest research report regarding teacher supply and demand. Marketing education was cited as a subject area with an emerging shortage of high school teachers nationwide. Since that time, the Ohio Department of Education has reported 15-20 openings per year in marketing education in Ohio. In 1987, the Department projected that by 1991 only 23 out of 358 marketing teachers will reach 30 years of teaching experience, thus qualifying them for full retirement benefits (Pinchak, 1987). It appears then that other factors besides retirement are contributing to teachers leaving their positions. One of those reasons may be that additional career opportunities within business have emerged for teachers with a background in marketing. As the need for competent workers in marketing grows with the service sector of the economy, marketing educators are being sought increasingly by firms because of their knowledge of marketing and their experience.

Another factor that may be contributing to marketing educators choosing to leave their positions is a possible decline in job satisfaction. Gorton (1982, p. 1904) synthesized research on teacher satisfaction and stated, "A number of studies conducted throughout the 1970's and into the 1980's indicate a gradual reduction in teacher satisfaction." Studies of the relationship between job satisfaction and teacher turnover are not prevalent. In marketing education, they are non-existent. However, the increasing opportunities for marketing instructors to enter the business labor market could result in increasing teacher turnover, especially if the instructors are

dissatisfied with their teaching positions.

In order to determine the level of job satisfaction of marketing education teachers, the relationships between job satisfaction and demographic variables, and when marketing educators plan to leave teaching, this research was conducted.

Research Questions

The study answered the following questions:

1. To what extent are secondary Northwest Ohio marketing educators satisfied with their current teaching positions?
2. To what extent are secondary Northwest Ohio marketing educators satisfied with specified categories of job satisfaction indicators?
3. To what extent are secondary Northwest Ohio marketing educators satisfied with each of 38 indicators of job satisfaction?
4. How can secondary Northwest Ohio marketing educators be described on the basis of specified demographic variables?
5. By demographic variables, to what extent are secondary Northwest Ohio marketing educators satisfied with their current teaching positions?
6. For each of eleven demographic variables, do significant differences exist between the categories of the variable and overall job satisfaction of secondary Northwest Ohio marketing educators?
7. When do the secondary Northwest Ohio marketing educators plan to leave their current teaching positions? What do they plan to do when they leave their positions?

Purposes

By investigating job satisfaction, it is suggested that that variable has a relationship to other variables deemed of value. Although teacher job satisfaction may be worthy of study as an outcome in and of itself, the relationship of job satisfaction to other variables related to student outcomes should be considered since most objectives of education call for enhancement of the student's life as opposed to the teacher's life,

Hoy and Miskel (1987, p. 400) wrote, "Originally, job satisfaction became important (in education) because the early proponents of a human relations approach convinced both theorists and administrators that a happy worker is a productive worker." Perhaps a relationship exists between job satisfaction and productivity.

Another variable that may be related to job satisfaction is work motivation. Hoy and Miskel (1987, p. 404) found that, "Work motivation is also consistently correlated with job satisfaction." Gorton (1982, p. 1904) stated, "At present there is not conclusive evidence that a satisfied employee is necessarily a motivated employee. Nevertheless, it seems reasonable to assume that a dissatisfied employee with low morale is not likely to be a maximally motivated worker." Therefore, the need exists to study job satisfaction.

Another reason for studying satisfaction of workers is explained by Cooper (1977). "A basic tenet of personnel work has long been that a satisfied employee, one with high morale, is likely to get along better with other employees, will be more accepting of management's directives, will be more committed to achieving organizational goals, and, in

general, will be more productive. This belief persists despite rather limited supportive research" (Gorton, 1982, p. 1904). Therefore, assuming a relationship between those variables and job satisfaction, this study seems warranted.

Finally, many marketing educators come directly out of business, where they may not have been satisfied with their jobs. They may be looking for better job satisfaction; and, if they are not satisfied with their teaching jobs, they may leave teaching, just as they left business. Thus, to reduce teacher turnover, job satisfaction should be considered.

Teacher Job Satisfaction Literature

According to the literature, in general, teachers traditionally have not been discontent. In 1972, Fuller and Miskel found that less than 8% of their educator sample were dissatisfied; in fact, 88.6% stated that they were satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs (Hoy and Miskel, 1987, p.402). Hoy and Miskel reported, "A reasonable conclusion (from the literature) is that, during the past forty or so years, the percentage of dissatisfied teachers has remained at relatively stable, low levels - below 10%."

However, Gorton (1982, p. 1904) explained that, "A number of studies conducted throughout the 1970s and into the 1980s indicate a gradual reduction in teacher satisfaction. For example, Fuller and Miskel (1972) found that about 89% of the teachers participating in their study were satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs, but Bentzen, Williams, and Heckman (1980), in an investigation conducted in the late 1970s, reported that slightly more than 75% of the teachers

were satisfied with their jobs."

No studies of job satisfaction of marketing educators were found in a search of the literature.

Delimitations and Limitations

This study was delimited to Northwest Ohio marketing educators at the high school level. Also, the instrument was administered in the month of October. Satisfaction levels may vary by time of the year, so the information generated for this study is only valid for that time of year.

The instructors were asked to offer certain predictions. The study was limited based upon the accuracy of those predictions. The findings are useful only to the extent that the respondents have provided honest responses to the items on the instrument. To control this limitation, the subjects were assured of anonymity in the cover letter of the mailing.

Procedures

A research grant was issued by the Ohio Department of Education to the researcher to conduct a mail survey of all secondary Northwest Ohio marketing educators. Thirty-eight indicators of job satisfaction were identified by reviewing the literature and by interviewing current and former marketing educators outside Northwest Ohio. These indicators were validated by marketing education student teachers and Northwest Ohio Vocational Education Personnel Development Center Advisory Council members. These groups also piloted the instrument and cover letter and offered suggestions for improvement.

Following the subsequent revision, the instrument was mailed to all

secondary Northwest Ohio marketing educators in October, 1988. The initial mailing and one follow-up mailing two weeks later resulted in a response rate of 83% (49 out of 59). Then, the investigator telephoned five of the non-respondents. Comparisons between those responding by mail and those answering six randomly selected job satisfaction indicator items by phone was made in order to determine if a significant difference exists. No such difference was found.

Findings

Job Satisfaction of Northwest Ohio Marketing Educators

Overall, Northwest Ohio marketing educators indicated that they were satisfied with their teaching positions. When all of the responses from all of the respondents to all of the 38 job satisfaction indicators were totaled, 87.7% of the responses were in the satisfied or very satisfied category (see Table 1).

However, some variance from these consistently positive responses was found when studying the indicators by categories and individual items. As can be seen in Table 1, 96% of the responses were positive in the "teaching assignments," "teacher's own competence and effectiveness," and "attributes of the job and school" categories. Meanwhile, 89.6% of the responses were positive in the "teaching" category.

Then, a drop occurs to 77.6% satisfaction in the "students" category and 75.5% satisfaction in two categories, "the teacher's own career" and "being appreciated." "School administration" drew 61.2% positive responses. The only category for which the majority of the responses were negative was "teaching as a profession" (44.9%).

Table 1
Job Satisfaction of Secondary Northwest Ohio Marketing Educators by Categories of Job Satisfaction Indicators and by Total Score

Category of Job Satisfaction Indicators[a] n = 49	Percent			
	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
How teachers feel about...				
their teaching assignments		4.1	77.6	18.4
attributes of the job and school		4.1	89.8	6.1
students		22.4	69.4	8.2
teaching		10.4	62.5	27.1
teaching as a profession	2.0	53.1	40.8	4.1
their own competence and effectiveness		4.1	63.3	32.7
their own career	2.0	22.4	63.3	12.2
being appreciated		24.5	69.4	6.1
school administration	2.0	36.7	46.9	14.3
TOTAL (Overall Satisfaction)		12.2	81.6	6.1

[a] See Table 2 for indicator statements.

Among the 38 indicators of job satisfaction listed in Table 2, less than 50% of the respondents expressed agreement with three of them, all of which fall into the "teaching as a profession" category. "Teachers have appropriate professional status within society" drew 75.5% disagreement; "The salary of this job is adequate" drew 61.2% disagreement; and "Adequate promotional opportunities in education exist" drew 56.3% disagreement.

Demographics and Comparisons

According to the data appearing in Table 3, the typical Northwest

Table 2
Job Satisfaction of Secondary Northwest Ohio Marketing Educators by Job Satisfaction Indicators

Indicator	n	Percent: Strongly Disagree	Dis-Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	a Mean	Std. Dev.
Their Assignments							
1. I am not assigned too many school duties.	48		31.3	50.0	18.8	2.88	.70
2. My classes are not too large.	46		8.7	58.7	32.6	3.24	.60
3. I am assigned appropriate extra-curricular activities.	44	4.5	9.1	70.5	15.9	2.98	.66
4. My classes are not too small.	45	4.4	4.4	53.3	37.8	3.24	.74
5. Appropriate students are placed in my classes.	47	12.8	29.8	55.3	2.1	2.47	.75
Attributes of the Job and School							
6. This job offers adequate challenges.	49	2.0	14.3	53.1	30.6	3.12	.73
7. The facilities, equipment, materials, and/or supplies are adequate.	49	2.0	12.2	61.2	24.5	3.08	.67
8. The hours on this job are satisfactory.	47		2.1	83.0	14.9	3.13	.40
9. I am satisfied with the location of this school.	49	2.0	12.2	46.9	38.8	3.22	.74
10. The salary of this job is adequate.	49	4.1	57.1	32.7	6.1	2.41	.67
11. The amount of preparation time required for this program is fair.	49		22.4	71.4	6.1	2.84	.51

a
Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree 3 = Agree
2 = Disagree 4 = Strongly Agree

table continues

Indicator	n	Percent: Strongly Disagree	Dis-Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	a Mean	Std. Dev.
12. What is expected of me is realistic.	49		16.3	69.4	14.3	2.98	.56
Students							
5. Appropriate students are placed in my classes. (also under "Assignments")	47	12.8	29.8	55.3	2.1	2.47	.75
13. I feel appreciated by students for my work.	47		34.0	53.2	12.8	2.79	.66
14. Student discipline is fine.	48	8.3	25.0	52.1	14.6	2.73	.82
15. Students are interested in what I teach.	48		16.7	62.5	20.8	3.04	.62
Teaching							
16. I like teaching.	49			38.8	61.2	3.61	.49
17. I am not bored in this teaching position.	49	4.1	10.2	36.7	49.0	3.31	.82
18. I do not feel isolated.	49	4.1	22.4	46.9	26.5	2.96	.82
19. I am satisfied with this job.	49	2.0	16.3	51.0	30.6	3.10	.74
20. I do not feel vulnerable to criticism in teaching.	48	2.1	27.1	60.4	10.4	2.79	.65
21. I do not feel a sense of burnout.	49	2.0	28.6	49.0	20.4	2.88	.75
22. My job as an educator gives me a great deal of personal satisfaction.	49		22.4	51.0	26.5	3.04	.71
23. I feel that most other educators are not more satisfied with their jobs than I am.	47	2.1	12.8	59.6	25.5	3.09	.69

table continues

Indicator	n	Percent				a Mean	Std. Dev.
		Strongly Disagree	Dis-Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree		
Teaching as a Profession							
10. The salary of this job is adequate. (also under "Attributes of the Job and School")	49	4.1	57.1	32.7	6.1	2.41	.67
24. Adequate promotional opportunities in education exist.	48	31.3	25.0	37.5	6.3	2.19	.96
25. Society has realistic expectations of me.	48	2.1	45.8	45.8	6.3	2.56	.65
26. Teachers have appropriate professional status within society.	49	24.5	51.0	22.4	2.0	2.02	.75
Their Own Competence and Effectiveness							
27. I feel competent in my teaching position.	49			42.9	57.1	3.57	.50
28. I am effective (able to get students to learn as desired).	48		14.6	70.8	14.6	3.00	.55
29. I feel adequately prepared to teach this program.	49	2.0	6.1	53.1	38.8	3.29	.68
Their Own Careers							
30. My long range occupational goal is to continue teaching this program.	48	2.1	22.9	47.9	27.1	3.00	.77
31. If I come into enough money so that I can live comfortably without working, I will not quit my job.	47	14.9	23.4	42.6	19.1	2.66	.96

table continues

Indicator	n	Percent				a Mean	Std. Dev.
		Strongly Disagree	Dis-Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree		
32. I do not often think of changing jobs.	49	2.0	28.6	40.8	28.6	2.96	.82
Being Appreciated							
13. I feel appreciated by students for my work. (also under "Students")	47		34.0	53.2	12.8	2.79	.66
33. I feel appreciated by administrators for my work.	47	8.5	34.0	48.9	8.5	2.57	.77
34. I feel appreciated by parents for my work.	48		18.8	66.7	14.6	2.96	.58
35. I feel appreciated by my colleagues for my work.	47	4.3	38.3	51.1	6.4	2.60	.68
School Administration							
33. I feel appreciated by administrators for my work. (also under "Being Appreciated")	47	8.5	34.0	48.9	8.5	2.57	.77
36. I am provided adequate administrative support and backing.	47	4.3	29.8	40.4	25.5	2.87	.85
37. The administrators in my school are strong.	44	9.1	31.8	45.5	13.6	2.64	.84
38. I feel encouragement for my initiatives.	48	6.3	27.1	58.3	8.3	2.69	.72

Ohio high school marketing educator at the time of the study taught in a comprehensive high school, had a baccalaureate degree, acquired certification through a traditional undergraduate program, was teaching on a 4-year provisional certificate, and had taught between 11 and 20

years. The individual was not a member of the American Vocational Association (AVA), was male, and was married with 1.67 children. He was 35-44 years of age.

However, the instructors were somewhat diverse. Twenty-two out of 49 had a higher degree than bachelor's, and 22 of them gained certification from an alternative route than an undergraduate program. Twenty had a higher level teaching certificate than a provisional, and although 25 had taught over 10 years, 24 had taught for 10 years or less. Almost half were members of AVA while almost half were female. Fourteen were not married, 17 were under 35 years of age while 9 were over 45. Thirteen had no children.

In Table 3, the overall satisfaction levels of each of the categories within each demographic variable appear. Some slight differences are evident although significant differences are not present.

However, significant differences were found between a few of the demographic variables and certain categories of job satisfaction indicators. As can be seen in Table 4, those indicating that they were planning to continue teaching in that school system until retirement were significantly more satisfied with the attributes of the job and school than those indicating that they were not planning to continue teaching in that school system until retirement. Also, the longer a teacher had taught that program at that school, the more satisfied the instructor was with the attributes of the job and school.

Females were significantly more satisfied with their teaching assignments than males. Also, instructors with a permanent teaching

Table 3
Demographic Characteristics of Northwest Ohio Marketing Educators and Their Schools and Total Job Satisfaction Scores

Characteristic	Frequency	%	Percent[a] VD	D	S	VS
Type of School						
Comprehensive High School	39	81.3		15.4	76.9	7.7
Joint Vocational School	9	18.7			100.0	
Highest Level of Education						
High School Diploma	2	4.1			100.0	
Baccalaureate Degree	25	51.0		8.0	92.0	
Masters Degree	19	38.8		21.1	68.4	10.5
Specialist Degree/Cert.	3	6.1		66.7	33.3	
Path Toward Certification						
Undergraduate Program	27	55.1		11.1	77.8	11.1
Completing Certification Courses Prior to Teaching	7	14.3		14.3	85.7	
Beginning to Teach Prior to Taking Certification Courses (1-Year Certification)	15	30.6		13.3	86.7	
Current Teaching Certificate						
1-Year Certificate	4	8.2			100.0	
4-Year Provisional	25	51.0	12.0	88.0		
8-Year Professional	9	18.4		11.1	88.9	
Permanent	11	22.4		18.2	54.5	27.3
Number of Years Teaching This Program in this School						
0-2	17	34.7		5.9	94.1	
3-5	7	14.3		28.6	71.4	
6-10	12	24.5			91.7	8.3
11-20	13	26.5		23.1	61.5	15.4

[a] VD-Very Dissatisfied; S-Satisfied; D-Dissatisfied; VS-Very Satisfied

table continues

Characteristic	Frequency	%	Percent			
			VD[a]	D	S	VS
Number of Years Teaching Experience in Total						
0-2	4	8.2			100.0	
3-5	6	12.2		16.7	83.3	
6-10	14	28.6			100.0	
11-20	22	44.9		22.7	72.7	4.5
21-30	3	6.1			33.3	66.7
Membership in American Vocational Association (AVA)						
Member of AVA	21	44.7		9.5	81.0	9.5
Not a Member of AVA	26	55.3		11.5	84.6	3.8
Sex						
Male	27	55.1		14.8	77.8	7.4
Female	22	44.9		9.1	86.4	4.5
Marital Status						
Single	10	20.8			100.0	
Married	34	70.9		17.6	76.5	5.9
Divorced	4	8.3			100.0	
Number of Own Children						
0	13	26.5			92.3	7.7
1	5	10.2		20.0	80.0	
2	21	42.9		19.0	76.2	4.8
3	6	12.2		16.7	66.7	16.7
4	3	6.1			100.0	
5	1	2.0			100.0	
Age						
25 and Below	3	6.3			100.0	
26-34	14	29.2	7.1	85.7	7.1	
35-44	22	45.8		9.1	90.9	
45-54	8	16.7		25.0	50.0	25.0
55-64	1	2.1			100.0	

Table 4
Two-Way Analyses of Variance for Satisfaction Scores of Marketing Educators by Demographic Variables Which Were Significant at the .05 Level

Source of variation	df	F	P > F	N	Mean	Tukey's test(a)
Satisfaction toward attributes of the job and school						
Plans to continue teaching	1	4.30	.0435			
Yes				35	18.1592(b)	A
No				14	16.8980	B
Number of years teaching that program at that school	1	5.83	.0200			
Satisfaction toward teaching assignments						
Sex	1	7.23	.0099			
Female				22	16.2121(c)	A
Male				27	14.8148	B

a
Any two means that share a common letter are not significantly different.
b
7.00 - Very Dissatisfied; 14.00 - Dissatisfied
21.00 - Satisfied; 28.00 - Very Satisfied
c
4.00 - Very Dissatisfied; 8.00 - Dissatisfied
12.00 - Satisfied; 16.00 - Very Satisfied

table continues

Source of variation	df	F	P > F	N	Mean	Tukey's test
Satisfaction toward their own teaching competence and effectiveness						
Teaching Certificate	3	3.48	.0233			
Permanent Certificate				11	10.8182(a)	A
Provisional Certificate (4-Year)				25	9.6800	B,A
Professional Certificate (8-Year)				9	9.5556	B,A
One-Year Certificate				4	9.0000	B

[a] 3.00 - Very Dissatisfied; 6.00 - Dissatisfied
9.00 - Satisfied; 12.00 - Very Satisfied

certificate were more satisfied with their own teaching competence and effectiveness than respondents with a one-year certificate.

The rest of the analyses of variance between categories of job satisfaction and demographic variables did not uncover significant differences at the .05 level. However, with such a small sample size, significant differences would be difficult to find.

Plans of Northwest Ohio Marketing Educators

As can be seen in Table 5, most Northwest Ohio marketing educators (71.4%) planned to stay in their current teaching position until retirement. However, whether they planned to retire or not, 20 of the 44 instructors responding indicated that they planned to leave their positions by the year 2000. Indeed, 12 of them planned to leave within the next five years.

Table 5
Plans of Northwest Ohio Marketing Educators

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Marketing Educators Planning to Continue Teaching in their Current School Systems Until Retirement		
Planning to Stay	35	71.4
Planning to Leave	14	28.6
Marketing Educators Planning to Leave Current School System or Retire by Year		
1989-1994	12	27.0
1995-2000	8	18.2
2001-2005	14	31.8
2006-2010	5	11.4
2011-2015	3	6.8
2018-2022	2	4.5
Plans of Marketing Educators Planning to Leave Teaching Prior to Retirement (respondents could check more than one)		
Enter School Administration or Guidance	3	
Teach Same Program in Another School System in Northwest Ohio	5	
Teach Same Program in Another Ohio School System Outside Northwest Ohio	4	
Teach Same Program Outside Ohio	3	
Teach a Different Program or Subject	4	
Work in Business/Industry	6	
Go to Graduate School	2	
Stay Home for Family Reasons	1	

Of the 14 planning to leave for reasons other than retirement, 6 indicated that they would like to enter business and industry while 5 would like to teach marketing education in another school system in Northwest Ohio. Only 3 planned to enter school administration or guidance.

Conclusions

This study verified Hoy and Miskel's research of the early 1970's that found that 88.6% were satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. Secondary marketing educators in Northwest Ohio mirrored that finding almost exactly.

The gradual decline in teacher satisfaction reported by Gorton (1982) was not corroborated by this study. Northwest Ohio marketing educators indicated that they are more satisfied with their jobs than the teachers studied in the late 1970's by Bentzen, Williams, and Heckman (1980).

Although the instructors in this study are satisfied overall, they are not satisfied with teaching as a profession. They are dissatisfied with their salaries, advancement opportunities, and their status within society.

Northwest Ohio marketing educators do not vary substantially in their satisfaction levels overall by demographic variables. The differences that were found would be expected. The one difference that was not expected was the difference between the responses of the females and the responses of the males related to satisfaction toward teaching assignments. The female Northwest Ohio marketing educators are more satisfied wtih their teaching assignments than the males.

Discussion

A relationship between job satisfaction of marketing educators and teacher turnover seems to have been found in this study. Although a measure of actual teacher turnover was not included, the teachers who indicated that they were planning to leave their current teaching

positions prior to retirement were less satisfied with the attributes of their jobs and schools than the teachers planning to stay.

This finding did not generalize to overall job satisfaction, however. When considering the other factors related to job satisfaction, such as teaching as a profession, teaching in general, and school administrator support, the differences between the two groups were not significant. Perhaps this information is indicating that the teachers planning to leave their positions before retirement are as satisfied with teaching in general as those planning to stay, but they are not as satisfied as the others with the attributes of that particular job at that particular school.

If a relationship does exist between job satisfaction and productivity, work motivation, and committment to the organization's goals, as indicated by Cooper (1977), then perhaps the instructors in this study are performing relatively well, since their overall job satisfaction was positive. Further, this positive job satisfaction may explain why the vast majority of the instructors are planning to stay in their positions until retirement.

Finally, although most teachers are satisfied and plan to remain in their positions until retirement, the demand for instructors will certainly be present in Northwest Ohio between now and the end of the century. Teacher education programs will need to provide certificated teachers to take the place of those leaving their positions for retirement or for other reasons. The need for a strong teacher education program in marketing education in Northwest Ohio appears to have been supported by this study.

Recommendations

To improve job satisfaction among marketing educators in Northwest Ohio, conditions related to the teaching profession should be improved. Conditions needing improvement include salary, advancement opportunities, and the status of the teacher in society.

Northwest Ohio administrators should be aware that "school administration" was one of the lowest categories of job satisfaction. They should also determine why females are more satisfied with their teaching assignments than males. Finally, they should know that the longer a marketing educator stays in that school, the more satisfied that individual will be.

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THE USE OF VIDEOTAPE TO INCREASE STUDENT PRODUCTIVITY

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Abstract

The primary objective was to compare three teaching methodologies to determine the effect of video-based instruction on student productivity and retention over a 72-hour period. The random sample was 39 classes of 12 students that totaled 468 students. The analysis of variance and Duncan's multiple range test were used to measure student productivity and retention. The results were that after the first and second test the videotape lecture with class discussion ranked highest, the videotape lecture ranked second, and the independent study method ranked third. It was concluded that video-based instruction increased student classroom productivity and retention.

Introduction

In 1983 the National Commission on Excellence in Education reported that a serious problem with education in the United States was the lowering of classroom productivity; recommendations were proposed to improve this condition. However, there were no recommendations on how to teach, and little was said concerning the potential contribution of research and development to the improvement of teaching (cited in Ellson, 1986).

With the influx of technologies and increasing sophistication of curriculum materials, teachers have been concerned about determining which methodology will transfer the highest level of competency to their student clientele. Teachers have wanted to teach with as much efficiency and effectiveness as possible.

Statement of the Problem

Due to the increased use of video-based instruction in the marketing and sales fields, it appears that video-based instruction has an important future in Marketing Education. Because of the increased use of video equipment in industry, one of the next major purchases planned for Marketing Education teachers in Houston, Texas, is a number of videotape players.

Studies on teaching methodology have stated that the quality of instruction can be improved, with no noticeable increase in cost, by focusing on methodology (Ellson, 1986). Teaching methods that allow class discussion have been shown to improve the productivity of students (Sternberg, 1987). An important question for Marketing Education

teachers has been: "Which method will produce the most efficient and productive learning mode for most of the students in the classroom?"

Statement of Hypotheses

The specific null hypotheses tested were:

Ho_1: There is no significant difference in cognitive achievement among the group mean scores of students studying the principles of selling through: (a) independent study, (b) videotaped lectures, and/or (c) videotaped lectures with class discussions.

Ho_2: There is no significant difference in retention among the group mean scores of students studying the principles of selling through: (a) independent study, (b) videotaped lectures, and/or (c) videotaped lectures with class discussions.

Review of Literature

There were several studies investigating the steadily increased use of videotapes in the classroom and in industrial environments. These studies showed that the videotape recorder may be used in many different ways to facilitate the teacher and learner. All of the studies emphasized that the videotape recorder was a tool to be used within an effective instructional program. In industry, the videotape recorder was found to be an effective training, merchandising, and communication tool.

In Marketing Education, video instruction has been effective in the instructional areas of selling, job interview, management, human

relations, and communications. Studies outlined the effective use of videotapes:

1. Videotapes were most effective when designed as part of a sequence of well-planned and structured learning activities (Torrence, 1985).

2. The instructor gave the student the objectives of the lesson, and then explained the relevance of the lesson to the student's training station (Berns, 1987).

3. The teacher did not create a theater-type atmosphere and the students did not expect to be entertained (Berns, 1987).

4. The videotapes were no longer than 20 minutes (Berns, 1987).

Several trade journal articles and interviews by business people stated that the videotape recorder has played an increasing role in industry. The videotape recorder was used as a tool to train salespeople, market products, and increase communications by management. One of the major differences between videotapes produced by industry and videotapes produced by educators was the quality and quantity of items produced. Industry invested in soundproof studios and state-of-the-art equipment, and used professional camera people and technicians.

The scope of the video productions has steadily increased. Videotapes were used to show salespeople how to use a cash register, close a sale, or deal with a difficult customer. Also, videotape programs were done on safety and theft prevention. In addition to training, numerous studies showed that sales could be increased when a video presentation was positioned near merchandise, especially if the item was a new product.

No study was identified that compared the use of videotapes to independent study. However, there have been several studies that explored different teaching methodologies. In general, studies that compared different types of audio and visual presentations as teaching methodologies found that when visual images were used, the learning was enhanced. One study compared the use of three different types of video formats to train employees. Other studies compared questioning as part of a teaching methodology. These studies agreed that questioning enhanced learning and increased the learner's ability to recall information (Ellson, 1986).

There has been a need for more research on what Bloom (cited in Cameron & Tee, 1985) called the alterable variables in the learning situation. Cameron and Tee (1985) stated:

> Brody (1963) carried out a historical review of teaching noted that feedback for the learner was one major ingredient for successful teaching. Similarly, Brophy and Evertson (1976) who confined their research to classrooms where pupils 'made significant progress' observed that successful teachers not only provided such feedback but were also clear about their long-term objectives ('each student knew where he/she was going'). Branwhite and Levey (1982) point out that for some pupils the 'how' of teaching was almost as important as the 'what' of teaching: in other words selected and pre-planned teaching methods were important. (p. 145)

In 1983 the National Commission on Excellence in Education provided five recommendations on how to improve student productivity in the classroom. The contribution of research or recommendations on the methods of teaching was not considered. There have been several studies of teaching methodology that indicated an increase in student achievement was accomplished with an alteration in teaching methodology (cited in Ellson, 1986).

Seventy-four percent of 125 teaching techniques that were studied used instructional systems design. Many of these studies used one or more physical technologies such as broadcasting or audiovisual equipment. In most of the studies, the experimental treatment resulted in higher student productivity over the control group. In the review of 125 experimental situations, at least one quantitative index, such as effectiveness, efficiency, cost, or cost-effectiveness was at least doubled. Some of the procedures studied cost less than teaching methods presently being used (Ellson, 1986).

In summary, there have been several studies comparing different teaching methodologies. Many of these comparison studies have indicated that increased student retention and productivity could be achieved with a change in teaching methodology. There were no studies revealed that compared the use of the videotape recorder and independent student study. With the increased investment of school district funds in videotape equipment, the Houston Independent School District became interested in research concerning videotape technology. One of the concerns expressed by researchers in the review of literature was the lack of scientific research before major purchasing decisions. It was concluded that this study was appropriate to investigate possible uses of the videotape recorder.

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to compare three classroom teaching methodologies in Marketing Education in the Houston Independent School District. The study was completed in four stages. In the first stage, a

lesson to be used in the experiment was developed. In the second stage, a test measuring the retention and understanding of the lesson to be used in the experiment was developed. In the third stage, three teaching methodologies integrating new technologies were developed. After the teaching methodologies were developed, the steps used for conducting the experiment to compare the three teaching methodologies were described in the fourth stage.

These stages are described in four areas. These area include: (a) Lesson Development; (b) Test Development; (c) Videotape Development; and (d) Administration of the Experiment.

This investigation was conducted as an experimental research project. The methods and procedures used were selected because they met the investigative needs of this research. The strategies used followed an experimental design.

The lesson used for this research was on the types of customer objections and how a salesperson can overcome these objections. The content of the lesson was taken from the Texas State adopted textbooks and IDECC. IDECC was the nationally recognized curriculum for Marketing Education. The textbooks used were Selling: Helping Customers Buy (Ditzenberger & Kidney, 1981) and Retailing Principles and Practices (Meyer, Haines, & Harris, 1982). After the lesson was constructed, a panel of experts consisting of three marketing education teachers and two business people reviewed the lesson.

The measurement device used in the experiment to evaluate student achievement and retention was a multiple choice test. A multiple choice or closed response criterion test was developed to facilitate data

gathering and tabulation (Borg & Gall, 1979). After determining that closed response questions were appropriate, the content of the questions was considered. The questions ranged from simple content recall to evaluation and analysis questions.

Borg and Gall (1979) recommended that the test be approved by a panel of experts. The panel of experts consisted of three Marketing Education teachers, two counselors, and two business people. The panel of experts reviewed the test for readability and content. A few revisions were made on the test.

Churchill (1979) stated that the real test of any data collection instrument was in how the instrument performed under actual testing conditions. Consequently, the test was pretested and given with the written lesson to 30 Marketing Education students.

Norberg (cited in Land, 1979) stated: "There is no need to fear that the machine may displace, degrade, or regiment human teachers--or that it will dehumanize education. On the contrary, a humanized technology can free the teachers from the servitude of mechanical and repetitive chores and amplify the force of his creative and distinctively human efforts" (p. 281).

The production of the videotaped lecture and the videotaped lecture-discussion was done in classroom situations. The same person was used for both videotapes to add control to the variability possibilities in teacher performance (Lipson & Gur-Aire, 1981). The teacher used was a Marketing Education instructor in the Houston Independent School District.

The production of the videotapes was done with videorecording equipment that was available in the school district. The equipment consisted of a videotape recorder, a camera on a tripod, and a television screen monitor. There was no access to an editing machine, zoom camera lens, or soundproof room. Consequently, the production was comparable to what any marketing education teacher in the Houston Independent School District could accomplish within their school facilities.

The steps involved in administration of this experiment included: (a) school district approval; (b) panel of experts meeting; (c) sample selection; (d) statistical analysis. The administration of the experiment took nine months.

The Houston Independent School District required that the University-approved proposal, copy of the lesson to be used, copy of the test to be used, and a proposal outlined by the district be submitted at least two months prior to the experiment.

The second step involved a meeting with a panel of experts. The panel was the same panel used to review the test. The student and teacher instructions were reviewed.

The population selected for this research were the Marketing Education Cooperative I classes in the Houston Independent School District. The population consisted of 42 classes, and the sample consisted of 39 classes (Bailey & Guertin, 1970). These 39 classes were equally divided among the three experimental treatment groups. The simple random sampling technique was used for the experiment (Borg & Gall, 1979). After the selection of the initial sample and after the experiment, 12 students who completed both tests were randomly selected

from each class. The number 12 was chosen because it was the number of the smallest unit in the population.

Findings and Conclusions

On the basis of the findings, it seemed evident that viewing a videotaped lecture discussion produced the highest test mean scores, viewing the videotape lecture produced the second highest test mean scores, and the independent study produced the lowest test mean scores.

The results of the analysis of variance with the first test as the dependent variable were shown in Table 1. The F-ratio associated with the independent variable of teaching method was significant beyond the .05 level. Then the application of Duncan's multiple range test indicated that the three methods were significantly different for the first test. This procedure was summarized in Table 2.

Table 1

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Mean Scores on the First Test

Source	DF	Sum of squares	Mean square	F value
Model	2	646.99	323.39	48.87
Error	36	238.30	6.61	
Corrected total	38	885.29		

Note: This test controls the type I comparisonwise error rate.

p>F at .0001.

Table 2

Results of Duncan's Multiple Range Test for the Three Methods on Test 1

Variable	Videotape lecture-discussion	Videotape lecture	Independent study
Test 1	82.43a	77.64b	72.48c

Note: Subscripts a, b, and c were all significantly different.

The results of the analysis of variance with the second test as the dependent variable were shown in Table 3. The F-ratio associated with the independent variable of teaching method was significant beyond the .05 level. The application of Duncan's methods was statistically different for the second test. This procedure was summarized in Table 4.

Table 3

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Mean Scores on the Second Test

Source	DF	Sum of squares	Mean square	F value
Model	2	1,120.26	560.13	92.30
Error	36	218.47	6.06	
Corrected total	38	1,338.74		

Note: This test controls the type I comparisonwise error rate.

p>F at .0001.

Table 4

Results of Duncan's Multiple Range Test for the Three Methods on Test 2

Variable	Videotape lecture-discussion	Videotape lecture	Independent study
Test 2	72.02a	69.37b	59.56c

Note: Subscripts a, b, and c were significantly different.

In summary, based on the findings, the first null hypotheses a, b, and c and the second null hypotheses a, b, and c were rejected because they were all statistically different.

It is possible to place a quantitative value on the productivity of students in the classroom. The value of producing higher test scores in the same time frame must be weighed against the cost of the equipment and teaching time. In many cases the end product will be a compromise between what is desirable and what is possible. Integrating videotapes into the classroom with a minimum of professional skill and sophisticated equipment will be subject to this reality.

Recommendations

It is recommended that video-based instruction be utilized in Marketing Education. Marketing Education teachers should seriously consider alternative teaching methods to the independent study method. Both of these methods utilized audio and visual stimulation for the students. The videotape lecture and the videotape lecture with class discussion were two alternatives that could be used. It was indicated in

this study that teachers also need to encourage class discussion and interaction with the students.

Another recommendation would be to conduct an experimental study using the video-based instruction with special needs students or students who miss a lesson. The videotapes could be viewed as often as necessary for a student to gain mastery of the lesson. Video-based instruction could also be utilized by a student who first wants to review a specific lesson that he or she had difficulty in comprehending.

The final recommendation concerns the use of the experimental research design and the cooperation between the public school systems and the University research personnel. Experimental researchers in education should take care in following objective and statistically sound methods. Access to a large enough sample to conduct the experiment has been very important to the success of experimental research in education.

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MARKETING EDUCATION FOR MARINA OPERATORS

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ABSTRACT

This research was designed to profile characteristics of a statewide marina industry and develop an education program to promote understanding of the information by the marina operators. Twenty representative marinas were used to solicit customers as research participants. A two-stage survey process elicited market information and a four part educational program was designed to disseminate market data and to enhance marina operator competencies in marketing. Of 2,797 customers agreeing to participate in the research, 1,275 (45.6%) returned the mail-out survey. They provided information on product and service preferences, media choices and related psychographics. Marina operators exhibited high interest in the market data.

MARKETING EDUCATION FOR MARINA OPERATORS

The marina industry is a primary provider of public access to lakes and streams and, thus, of water related recreation opportunities sought by people for varied recreation activities. It is an industry composed of a wide range of business sizes, whether measured by economic investment, economic returns, amount of dockage, or other physical characteristics. Further, these businesses are located in vastly differing site conditions which are often dictated by the natural resource settings of manmade or natural lakes or streams. It is clearly an industry which holds important implications for the extent and quality of public recreational opportunity.

Conversely, the prospective users of recreation opportunity provided through these businesses' actions are also the market of customers on which the individual businesses of the industry are dependent. An understanding of market characteristics pertinent to the marina industry and techniques appropriate to attracting customers from the market seems, thus, a useful tool of these businesses.

A review of the literature revealed little empirical research of marketing application related to marinas or to state industries or geographically similar tourism service industries. One previous investigation suggested there has been little empirical research on the marketing planning and management practices of service businesses, generally, and of tourism service firms, in particular (Filiatrault and Chebat, 1986). Exclusive of analyses of individual firm markets or feasibility studies, no examples of state market analyses were found.

A one question query of the extent of interest in market information and preferences was conducted among firms responding to a statewide marina business survey (Worms, 1987). The survey respondents indicated by an 89.4% proportion (42 of 47 marina firms) that they would participate in "on-site research of customer origins, product and service preference and related marina business improvement topics provided it did not disrupt normal operation or disturb your customers." The expression of interest in customer origins, preferences and other topics displayed by the survey respondents helped to give rise to this study. Further discussions with executives of a state trade organization, the Kentucky Marina Association, provided additional encouragement and valuable direction regarding functional procedures for research of the state industry market and for follow-up educational efforts in marketing techniques.

OBJECTIVES/PURPOSE

This study's purpose involved development of a procedure which could realistically profile selected market characteristics of a statewide marina industry and provide procedures appropriate to dissemination of the information to marina business operators. It was further necessary that the marinas could use the information to benefit their business operations and, also, the recreational enjoyment of their customers. Specific objectives of the research were: 1) to profile market characteristics of the statewide industry; and, 2) to develop an education program which would promote improved understanding of the market information and improved business practices and services offered by the marina operators.

METHOD

Setting

The marina industry in the state selected for study, Kentucky, is composed of more than one hundred marinas and docks and all are located on freshwater manmade impoundments or river pools. They differ greatly, however in terms of their individual size, dockage characteristics, types of primary recreational activities sought by their customers (fishing, houseboating, water skiing, sail boating, etc.), and recreational housing or other related attractions offered. Four of five firms operate other business and/or recreation facilities such as cottages or campgrounds along with their primary marina activities (Kreag, 1983).

Analysis of the Kentucky marina industry and its related market held special interest for research because of many areas of applicability to other inland state industries. These included business examples similar to those in varied other state settings, representatively diverse water recreation settings to attract customers, a realistic proximity to important mid-nation market populations, and a business community appropriate to marketing education objectives.

It was unrealistic within the fiscal and physical limitations of the research to assess market characteristics for all the marinas across Kentucky. A mail survey together with information from state government had revealed there were approximately 118 operating, on-water marinas and docks. Consequently, a procedure was sought to sample a number of marinas which representatively met the desirable characteristics outlined above and which would meet the objectives and purpose of the research. A two-stage questionnaire survey procedure followed by a series of education activities applied on an industry wide basis was designed.

Research Design

With the assistance of the Kentucky Marina Association a twelve person marina owner/operator committee was formed to assist in setting research priorities and in reacting to research procedural options. The committee helped in identification of market subjects of highest business management value, and in identification of five business categories which described the most typical patterns of marinas and boat docks throughout the state industry (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1

Marina Business Categories

Category	Description of Characteristics
A.	A broad service marina with cottages, campground or other lodging at the marina; usually provides a restaurant, dockage and repair shop with a major boat rentals operation.
B.	A multi-service marina which may offer lodging (as campground or cottages, etc.) and/or a restaurant; also entails dockage and some boat rentals.
C.	Marinas with dockage and store and major boat rentals, but no lodging or restaurant.
D.	Marinas primarily offering dockage with a small store and other supplies; may or may not entail minor boat rentals.
E.	Other operations at which dockage and related business exists, but is not primary.

Twenty representative marinas were selected proportionate to the number of marinas throughout the state which fit in each category. These marinas, 12 east of Interstate Highway 65 and 8 west of Interstate highway 65, were designated to serve as sites for the research stations. The 20 marinas also were representative of widely varied lake and river settings, resource agency management types, geo-position with respect to major market population centers, and other such conditions.

The research stations were, specifically, locations at the marinas where customers moved about freely and could be solicited at random to participate in the research. The research project

was announced by a large (16 x 24 inches) printed poster inviting customers to participate. They were asked to submit their name, address, and other information on a 3 by 5 inch "sign-up" card which they would then drop in a slotted box (16 x 16 x 16 inches) identified with University of Kentucky signing. An added incentive to participate in the research involved a drawing for a free one-week houseboat or resort cottage vacation to be conducted from among persons who returned completed research questionnaires. The poster further assured them of confidential handling of all responses and explained requirements that participants be 18 years of age or older and that marina employees and their families were ineligible for participation in the research or the drawing.

Marina operators and their personnel were instructed in procedures for operation of the stations, forwarding of the sign-up cards to the university and in overall research objectives. The stations were established at the 20 marinas on July 1, 1988, and kept in operation through July and August and the Labor Day holiday (September 5, 1988).

When sign-up cards were received at the university, they were number coded to correlate with a four page questionnaire designed to solicit detailed market information. The questionnaire was then sent to the research participants with an enclosed return-addressed business reply envelope. The combined sign-up card and questionnaire (if returned) provided for two research instruments and sources of market data. Data was tabulated for each instrument and correlated with each other, provided questionnaires were received from sign-up participants.

Survey Instruments

The sign-up cards requested identification of the participants's name, mailing address with zip code, boat(s) owned (if any), boat type, brand, length and motor horsepower. The cards also requested information on primary recreation activities and if the participant had rented a boat at "this" marina. Finally, completion of the sign-up card provided for acknowledgement that the respondent was "interested in qualifying for the free vacation drawing and I agree to participate in the research. I am a customer of this marina and over 18 years of age."

The questionnaire, four pages in length, dealt with varied socio-demographic, value and preferential subjects. An introductory statement reinforced understanding of the primary research purposes, namely to improve marina business and service to recreating customers, and encouraged accurate and complete responses to all questions. An initial set of open-ended questions provided respondents the opportunity to indicate their primary reasons for "doing business at this marina," things which should be "done to improve enjoyment at the marina" and to make the "lake/river more desirable." This section was followed by a set of open-ended questions soliciting information on respon-

dents' use of written and electronic media and other typical tourist industry advertising procedures.

Three ordinal techniques, ranking, semantic differential, and a Likert Summated Scale were used to determine respondents appraisal of various products, services and conditions at the marina where they did business (signed-up). Socio-economic profile information was developed by use of a set of response scales similar to and corresponding in ranges with those of the U. S. Bureau of the Census (Bureau of the Census, 1988). Finally, the questionnaire closed with a statement specifying rules, limitations and disclaimer conditions pertinent to the incentive drawing and with an opportunity for respondents to provide their name and address.

All sign-up cards were assigned a six digit number as they were received. This number provided two digits for identification of the marina from which the sign-up card had been received and four digits for identification of the research participant. The questionnaires were then stamped and recorded corresponding to the sign-up cards prior to mailing.

Education Methods

Methodology for the education program component involved four related activities. Compilation and analysis of the market data was completed first. Following this, the program for education of the marina operators was initiated. The education activities involved:

a) preparation of a market analysis report to be disseminated among the marina industry;

b) presentation of the report and explanation of the research findings at a state level meeting of the marina industry during November, 1988;

c) counseling of individual marina business owners and/or operators as to significance and use of the market information through the remainder of 1988 and during 1989; and,

d) conduct of a one-day marina owner/operator's workshop on market information and marketing techniques during 1989.

The marketing education component of this study necessarily involved development of here-to-fore unavailable data describing market conditions for the statewide marina industry in order to have topical information of interest to the subjects, the marina owner/operators. The education component dealt with presentation of both areas of information, then, the market data prospectively affecting the marina industry and individual businesses, and the technology pertinent to their use of the data.

RESULTS

Persons who signed up to participate in the research from the twenty marinas totalled 2,797. Only eleven sign-up cards were invalidated due to the possibility of bias related to their employment at a marina, because they were under eighteen years of age or for other reasons invalidating them as prospective research respondents (particularly nonsense applicants). Of the 2,797 participants, 1,275 persons returned statistically valid questionnaires, resulting in a 45.6% return rate. Marina customers originating from 32 states, Great Britain and France agreed to participate in the research through the sign-up procedure.

Sign-up Participants

The greatest number of marina customers visited and signed up from marinas in category A, broad service marinas with lodging and other marina related operations (see Table 1). Only category E tallied customers of a significantly lesser number. The greatest number of customers participating via sign-ups were realized from marinas east of Interstate Highway 65, 2,116 or 75.7% while participants from west of Interstate Highway 65 numbered 681 or 24.3%.

TABLE 1

Research Participants

By Marina Category

Marina Category	Frequency (Sign-ups)	Percent
A.	1390	49.7
B.	320	11.4
C.	595	21.4
D.	419	15.0
E.	73	2.6
	2797	100.0

Research participants from four states were obvious by their numbers. Kentucky had the most participants, 1,257 or 45%, Ohio was next with 719 or 26%, followed by Indiana with 396 or 14%, and Illinois with 174 or 6%.

Participants who owned boats numbered 1,759 (63%) whereas those who signed up, but did not own boats totalled 1,038 (37%). Of the boats owned, "runabouts" were the type most frequently cited, 636 or 32%. Fishing boats were cited 390 times or 20%, ski boats were cited 386 times or 19%, cruisers 232 times or 12%, and houseboats were cited 157 times or 7.9%. Other boats owned, but in smaller numbers by the research participants included 104 pontoon boats for 5.2% and 38 sail boats or 1.9%. Canoes and varied miscellaneous craft were cited in numbers less than one percent each.

Questionnaire Respondents

Respondents to the four page questionnaire exhibited a particularly high level of completion of the survey instrument. The questionnaire provided 105 or more opportunities for response. Of the total of 1,275 returned questionnaires there was a 97.3% completion rate of all possible responses resulting in 130,260 individual pieces of information. Responses to open-ended questions about reasons to do business at the marina, what should be done to improve enjoyment of the marina, and the like generated both codable answers and additionally volunteered comments which were often written in the margins. Answers to psycho-graphic, educational, and income questions were also completed to a high extent.

From questionnaire respondents, 949 or 74% were customers of marinas east of Interstate Highway 65 and 326 or 26% were from west marinas. The most common length of stay at the marinas was for one day (or part of a day) by 271 (29%)of the respondents, followed by 5 days with 161 respondents (17%), 4 days with 129 (14%), and 3 days with 93 (10%).

Houseboat rental was cited most often as the primary reason for doing business with the marina (135 or 11% of respondents) followed by "closeness to home" (128 or 10%), dockage (124 or 10%), and availability of gas (123 or 10%).

When asked what could improve their enjoyment of the marina, 407 (31.9%) responded that they were satisfied with present conditions, 77 (0.6%) wanted an improvement in available food services, 84 (0.7%) wanted improved parking conditions, and 52 (4.1%) wanted improved restroom facilities.

When asked what could make the lake/river more desirable, 436 (34.2%) were satisfied with current conditions, 93 (7.3%) complained about dumping of sewage in the lake waters, 52 (4.1%) wanted signs on the lake for directions, and 52 (4.1%) wanted better fishing conditions.

Questionnaire respondents were asked "what additional products . . . the marina store should handle." A notable distinction occurred between east and west marinas. For eastern marinas, additional products included a wider variety of groceries

(93 or 31%) and parts for boat/engine repairs (35 or 12%). For western marinas, a wider variety of groceries was also the most requested (35 or 12%), however fishing products was second (26 or 7%). Responses to the question were provided by virtually every individual, but the array of product types was so broad that few additional products stood out. Additional products cited included ice cream, beer, more snack foods, fresh fruits and vegetables, magazines, newspapers and other reading materials, and retail clothing items with the marina's name. Miscellaneous items cited once or twice accounted 101 or 26% of the responses.

A total of 110 newspapers were cited as being read regularly by the respondents. Newspapers with significant numbers of citations included the Louisville Courier Journal (291 or 20.1%), the Lexington Herald Leader 9121 or 8.4%), the Cincinnati Enquirer (120 or 8.3%), USA Today (98 or 6.8%), the Indianapolis Star (95 or 6.6%), the Wall Street Journal (92 or 6.4%), and the Columbus Dispatch (85 or 5.9%).

The television stations watched most frequently by Kentucky marina customers were distributed among Louisville, Cincinnati, Columbus and Lexington stations, respectively. A total of 225 television stations were cited by the 1,275 respondents.

Among services and facilities marina customers would like to have available, items rated as very important included "being able to buy repair equipment at the marina" (646 or 52.1%), "having a full service restaurant" (536 or 43.1%), and "being able to buy a full grocery line at the marina" (479 or 38.7%).

Issues of highest importance to the marina customers were the beauty of the lake or river, having electricity at the boat slip, the provision of evening recreation options at the marina, and cleanliness of facilities. General slip conveniences also were noted as having high value. Among pricing options was a high ranking for "fair price/high quality" goods. Notably, the expression of "quality" rated 43.9% higher than the expression of "economy" among all respondents.

Marina customers responding to the survey questionnaire were well educated with 556 or 43.6% having college degrees and only 2.6% having less than a high school diploma. The mean family income of non-owners of boats was $44,951 (355 respondents) and the mean family income of boat owners was 54,676 (842 respondents). There were 70 respondents to the income question who did not reveal whether or not they owned boats (on the sign-up card).

Educational Results

Educational objectives have been met, but only in part. An informally written 56 page report was prepared and presented at the 1988 Annual Conference of the Kentucky Marina Association. Leadership of the association further provided a session of the

conference specifically for delivery and explanation of the report and its significance to marina management. The conference was attended by more than 55% of the state's marina owner/operators and many other persons interested in the industry. Dissemination of the information among at least 45 additional business people was not achieved in this manner, however. Also, initial efforts to provide educational counseling of business people has been limited by seasonal conditions such as inclement weather, operators being unavailable due to their attendance at boat/sport/vacation shows, and vacations taken by the marina owner/operators during their winter off-season. Further the planned market information and marketing techniques workshop has been delayed until September of 1989 due to particularly busy pre-season conditions confronting marina business people.

Response to the research information and the report, however, have been very favorable. The Kentucky Marina Association has supported circulation of the report and additional requests for the report have been received from marine equipment companies, investors, marina operators in numerous other states, and state and federal government agencies. One agency, the U. S. Army Corps of Engineers, acquired a large number of the reports for use by their personnel.

CONCLUSIONS

Clearly, high interest in market data, consumer reactions, and marketing techniques has been expressed by marina owners and/or operators. Moreover, very strong interest in the market data derived from the research has been expressed by a wide variety of persons, firms and agencies indirectly associated with the marina industry. The marina operators, however, who attended the Kentucky Marina Association Annual Conference, obtained and studied (apparently) the report, and who exhibited the highest interest in learning more about marketing techniques fit a relatively limited profile. They are primarily: a) owners of medium to large sized marinas; b) aggressive business managers; and, c) members of the Kentucky Marina Association and one or more other trade organizations. Many of the business people who have not expressed an interest in the marina report and/or marketing education opportunities generally operate smaller businesses (as measured by gross investment).

Present plans for conduct of the market information and techniques workshop will involve co-sponsorship by the state association and a number of regional associations who may be instrumental in bolstering marina owner/operator attendance. Additionally, a procedure for measurement of response and utilization of the marketing information and training among marina operators across the state is being considered. Finally, needs for additional education and data will be surveyed in conjunction

with the workshop's advance announcement.

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ACCESSIBILITY TO AND ENROLLMENT IN SECONDARY BUSINESS AND MARKETING EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

ACCESSIBILITY TO AND ENROLLMENT IN SECONDARY BUSINESS AND MARKETING EDUCATION

The purpose of this study was to gather data that would be useful in identifying the number of college business students who had the opportunity to enroll in secondary business/marketing education programs (accessibility/availability), actually enrolled in business classes, and to measure student perception of secondary business courses as being useful in their preparation for a college marketing course.

Another purpose was to measure student perception of the usefulness of their high school marketing coursework with an introductory marketing course in college. A third area of study was to identify the number of students who had the opportunity to join the vocational student organizations DECA and FBLA and to identify the number of students who had been members of these clubs while in high school.

A researcher-designed questionnaire was administered to the population selected for this study. This included students enrolled (n = 251) in BUS 320 or TEC 400, Marketing, at State University College at Buffalo and MGM 301, Principles of Marketing, at State University at Buffalo during Fall Semester, 1988 and during Spring Semster, 1989. These were junior level courses that focused on the foundation principles of marketing.

The major conclusions were as follows: 1) business courses were accessable to most public secondary school students; 2) even though these courses were available, many students who enrolled in college business courses did not enroll in high school business courses; 3) since students had access to business courses, the low enrollment of college business students in secondary business courses courses may have been a result of not seeing the value of these courses, lack of proper guidance, or not having the electives available to enroll in high school business; 4) other students may not have seen the relevance or practical value of secondary business courses as preparation for a career or future college coursework. 5) there was limited access to, awareness of, and enrollment in secondary marketing education; 6) students who completed a secondary marketing course found their increased marketing knowledge to be helpful with introductory college marketing.

INTRODUCTION

One goal of all educational programs is to prepare students to gain further knowledge in their selected career field and to prepare students for future study. While some graduates of secondary business and marketing education programs proceed directly into the work force other graduates attend college to further expand their knowledge of business and marketing skills.

Since the spate of educational reports starting with A Nation At Risk (1983), there has been an increased demand for curriculum accountability and more time allocated to core requirements. According to The Unfinished Agenda (1983), increased course requirements should not jeopardize student's selection of elective courses. Since the beginning of the Educational Reform Movement, the number of students enrolled in elective business courses have declined. This has led to a problem of accessibility to business courses. Some students may now be required to take additional required courses that have reduced their opportunity to take business electives.

Specifically, in New York, the adoption of the Regents Action Plan has led to increased course requirements and a reduction in students' opportunity to enroll in elective courses. This has led to a reduction in business/marketing course enrollments and to a further decline in the number of business and marketing teachers in New York. A similar trend has appeared in other states.

An important concern of this study was whether students had access to business and marketing courses at the secondary level. If these courses were available, had college-bound business students actually enrolled or, at the minimum, have they considered enrolling in these courses.

Another consideration in this study was college business students' awareness of business and marketing courses at the secondary level and the opportunity and acceptability to use these courses as preparation for college study. Since the choice of college major is made concomitantly with personal career decisions and this decision will impact on students' secondary course selection, it is critical that students have an awareness of business and marketing courses. Business and marketing educators may have the option to further emphasize enrollment in secondary business and marketing courses as viable college preparation for future business majors and to stem the tide of declining enrollment.

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to gather data that would be useful in identifying the number of college business students who had the opportunity to enroll in secondary business/marketing education programs (accessability/availability), actually enrolled in business classes, and to measure student perception of secondary business courses as being useful in their preparation for a college marketing course.

Another purpose was to measure student perception of the usefulness of their high school marketing coursework as preparation for an introductory marketing course in college. A third area of study was to identify the number of students who had the opportunity to join the vocational student organizations DECA and FBLA and to identify the number of students who had been members while in high school.

Specifically the objectives of the study were as follows:

1. To determine the number of college students who had access to secondary marketing courses and business courses.
2. To determine the number of college students who had completed a secondary marketing course.
3. To determine the number of college students who had completed a secondary business course.
4. To determine the number of business courses and business skill courses college students completed in secondary schools.
5. To determine the number of college students who considered taking business subjects in secondary schools.
6. To describe student perception of the impact of completing a high school marketing course on their performance in a college introductory marketing course.
7. To describe student perception of the impact of completing a previous college marketing course on their performance in a college introductory marketing course.
8. To determine the number of college students who had access to DECA and access to FBLA.
9. To determine the number of college students who had been members of DECA and members of FBLA.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The findings and conclusions were limited to the population of this study, students enrolled during Fall, 1988 and during Spring, 1989, in an introductory marketing course at the State University of New York, College at Buffalo and at the State University of New York at Buffalo who attended public secondary schools.

METHODOLOGY

RESEARCH METHOD

This study used survey research, a type of descriptive research. Descriptive research is used to describe accurately the incidence, distributive, and characteristics of a group. It is also used to investigate relationships or associations between characteristics.

SUBJECT SELECTION

The population selected for this study included students enrolled in BUS 320 or TEC 400, Marketing, at State University College at Buffalo and MGM 301, Principles of Marketing, at State University at Buffalo during Fall Semester, 1988 and during Spring Semster, 1989. These were junior level courses that focused on the principles of marketing.

QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

To obtain the required information to meet the objectives of this study, a researcher-designed questionnaire was developed. The questionnaire had the following three sections:

- Section I: Education
- Section II: Work Experience
- Section III: High School Education.

Information from Dillman's Mail and Telephone Surveys, The Total Design Method (1978), was used to write questions that identified the exact information desired from the respondents. (See Appendix I)

MEASURES OF RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

In order to increase the reliability of this study a pilot test was carried out in one BUS 320 section. In order to increase the validity a panel of three marketing professors reviewed the questionnaire for content and viewed the study's objectives for clarity. Their consensus supported the content and objectives.

DATA COLLECTION

Data were collected in October, 1988 for the Fall Semester group and in February, 1989 for the Spring Semster group. The first ten minutes of class were allocated to completing the questionnaire. Responses were coded on an optical scanning sheet.

The total number of responses was 251. Two questionnaires were not useable and forty graduates of private secondary schools were not included. This left a useable sample of 209.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data were analyzed through the use of the VACS computer system at State University College at Buffalo. Summary information was reported using descriptive statistics and correlations were used to measure associations between relevant variables of interest in this study.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

OBJECTIVE 1: To determine the number of students who had access to secondary marketing courses and business courses.

According to Table 1, most students had access to courses in business subjects and business skills subjects. Eighty-nine percent (n = 187) of the students had access to business skills subjects while 83 percent (n = 173) had access to business subjects. Only 36 percent (n = 76) had access to marketing/ distributive education courses while, surprisingly, 27 percent (n = 55) were unsure if their school taught this course.

TABLE 1: Accessibility to Secondary Business and Marketing Courses

Type of Course	YES		NO		UNSURE	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Marketing/Distributive Educ	76	36%	78	37%	55	27%
Business Subjects	173	83%	25	12%	11	5%
Business Skills Subjects	187	89%	19	9%	3	1%

OBJECTIVE 2: To determine the number of students who had completed a secondary marketing course.

OBJECTIVE 3: To determine the number of students who had completed a secondary business course.

Table 2 indicated that only eight percent (n = 16) of the students had completed a secondary marketing course while ninety-

two percent (n = 188) had not. More students completed business skills subjects (74%) than business subjects (57%). Courses in typing or keyboarding were considered more often than other business courses such as accounting, business law, or other available business electives.

TABLE 2: Completed a Secondary Business or Marketing Course

Type of Course	YES n	YES %	NO n	NO %
Marketing/Distributive Educ	16	8%	188	92%
Business Subjects	119	57%	90	43%
Business Skills Subjects	153	74%	55	26%

OBJECTIVE 4: To determine the number of business courses and business skill courses students completed in secondary schools.

According to Table 3, of those students who had completed a business course about a quarter (n = 47) had taken one course and about a third (n = 67) had completed two to four courses. Only 2 percent (n = 5) had completed five or more courses. It appeared that a maximum of eighteen percent had completed the three course sequence of business subjects required of occupational education students in New York.

Of those students who had completed a business skills course about forty percent (n = 82) had taken one course and about thirty percent (n = 60) had completed two to four courses. Only 2 percent (n = 5) had completed five or more courses. It appeared that a maximum of fifteen percent had completed the three course sequence of business skills required of occupational education students in New York.

TABLE 3: Number of Business Courses Completed

Type of Course	NONE n	%	1 n	%	2 n	%	3-4 n	%	5+ n	%	TOTAL n	%
Business	90	43%	47	22%	33	16%	34	16%	5	2%	209	100%
Business Skills	55	26%	82	39%	40	19%	20	10%	11	5%	209	100%

OBJECTIVE 5: To determine the number of students who considered taking business subjects in secondary schools.

According to Table 4, forty-three percent of students considered taking business skills subjects while thirty-three percent considered taking a business subject. It appeared that students either did not have course space for business electives or they did not consider business as their elective course.

TABLE 4: Considered Taking a Secondary Business Course

Type of Course	YES n	%	NO n	%	TOTAL n	%
Business Subjects	30	33%	60	67%	90	100%
Business Skills Subjects	24	43%	31	54%	55	100%

OBJECTIVE 6: To describe student perception of the impact of completing a high school marketing course on performance in a college introductory marketing course.

OBJECTIVE 7: To describe student perception of the impact of completing a college marketing course on performance in a college introductory marketing course.

Table 5 illustrated that students who completed previous marketing courses felt that the courses were helpful as preparation for an introductory college marketing course. Sixty-four percent of students who completed a secondary marketing course found the course to be helpful or very helpful while only 17 percent found the course not helpful. Sixty-two percent of students who completed a 2 Year/4 year College marketing course

found the course to be helpful or very helpful while only 13 percent found the course not helpful. This meant that most students perceived a previous marketing course as helpful in their introductory college marketing course.

TABLE 5: Impact of Completing a Previous Marketing Course

Type of School	SA n	SA %	A n	A %	N n	N %	D n	D %	SD n	SD %	TOTAL n	TOTAL %
Secondary Marketing	2	14%	7	50%	3	21%	7	6%	7	11%	16	100%
2 Year/4 Year College	3	10%	15	52%	7	24%	3	10%	1	3%	29	100%

OBJECTIVE 8: To determine the number of students who had access to DECA and had access to FBLA.

According to Table 6, thirty-six percent of students had access to a DECA club while only twenty percent had access to a FBLA club. There appeared to be a limited accessibility to these important co-curricular youth organizations. Surprisingly, one-third of the students were unsure if their school had either club available.

TABLE 6: Accessibility to Vocational Student Organizations

Type of Club Available	YES n	YES %	NO n	NO %	UNSURE n	UNSURE %
DECA	75	36%	66	32%	68	33%
FBLA	41	20%	96	46%	72	34%

OBJECTIVE 9: To determine the number of students who had been members of DECA and members of FBLA.

There appeared to be minimal involvement with both DECA and FBLA. Table 7 indicated that only 4 percent of students had been members of DECA and 2 percent had been members of FBLA. It is important to note that fifty percent of students who had completed a secondary marketing course had been DECA members.

TABLE 7: Membership in Vocational Student Organizations

Club	YES n	YES %	NO n	NO %
DECA	8	4%	200	96%
FBLA	5	2%	202	97%

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions were based upon the interpretation of findings resulting from the nine objectives formulated for this study:

OBJECTIVE 1
THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO HAD ACCESS TO SECONDARY MARKETING COURSES AND BUSINESS COURSES.

1. Most students had access to business skills and business subjects. This supported the fact that most secondary public schools made business courses available.

2. Business skills subjects were more accessable than business subjects.

3. Marketing education courses had low accessibility.

OBJECTIVE 2/OBJECTIVE 3
NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO HAD COMPLETED A SECONDARY MARKETING COURSE. NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO HAD COMPLETED A SECONDARY BUSINESS COURSE.

4. Most students did not take a secondary marketing course.

5. More students completed business skills subjects than business subjects or marketing. This was supported by the greater accessibility to these courses.

OBJECTIVE 4
NUMBER OF BUSINESS COURSES AND BUSINESS SKILL COURSES STUDENTS COMPLETED IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

6. More students completed business courses and business skills courses than those who did not. In some schools a course in typing or keyboarding may have been required.

7. Most students completed one or two business or business skills courses. This may have been based on certain school district requirements.

8. Few students concentrated in business or in business skills courses. Many of these college marketing students may have been enrolled in Regents, honors, or a college-preparatory curriculum.

9. Students typically complete one or two business area courses. Again, this may have been due to certain school course requirements.

OBJECTIVE 5

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO CONSIDERED TAKING BUSINESS SUBJECTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

10. More students considered taking business skills courses than business courses. This may have been due to student's considering keyboarding and typing skills as a college necessity or school requirements.

OBJECTIVE 6/OBJECTIVE 7

STUDENT PERCEPTION OF THE IMPACT OF COMPLETING A HIGH SCHOOL MARKETING COURSE ON PERFORMANCE IN A COLLEGE INTRODUCTORY MARKETING COURSE.

STUDENT PERCEPTION OF THE IMPACT OF COMPLETING A COLLEGE MARKETING COURSE ON PERFORMANCE IN A COLLEGE INTRODUCTORY MARKETING COURSE.

11. Completing a previous marketing course at the secondary level was perceived as being helpful in an introductory college marketing course. This points to the fact that foundations of marketing were emphasized in secondary marketing courses.

12. Completing a previous marketing course at the college level was perceived as being helpful in an introductory college marketing course. This again points to the fact that foundation marketing concepts were emphasized in a previous college marketing course.

OBJECTIVE 8

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO HAD ACCESS TO DECA AND ACCESS TO FBLA.

13. Only about a third of these students had access to either a DECA or FBLA Chapter. A third were unsure if the clubs were available.

OBJECTIVE 9

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WHO HAD BEEN MEMBERS OF DECA & MEMBERS OF FBLA.

14. Most students have not been members of DECA or members of FBLA. Either they did not have access, did not see the value, or did not have the time to join.

SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS

15. Business courses were accessable to most public secondary school students.

16. Even though these courses were available, many students who enrolled in college business courses did not enroll in high school business courses.

17. Since students had access to business courses, the low enrollment of college business students in secondary business courses courses may have been a result of not seeing the value of these courses, lack of proper guidance, or not having the electives to enroll in high school business.

18. Other students may not have seen the relevance or practical value of secondary business courses as preparation for a career or future college coursework.

19. There was limited access to, awareness of, and enrollment in secondary marketing education.

20. Students who completed a secondary marketing course found their increased marketing knowledge to be helpful with introductory college marketing.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Although the study was exploratory and limited to students enrolled in two state universities, the study does have some implications for business and marketing education. Based on the conclusions germain to this study nine recommendations were developed. These recommendations are targeted to specific audiences of marketing educators and business educators.

1. Greater awareness should be developed of the availability importance, and value of secondary business and marketing courses.

2. More emphasis should be placed on business education and marketing education enrollment for college-bound students. This is especially true of students who may want to study business in college.

3. Since business is one of the most popular college majors for students today, business/marketing educators should more closely develop college-type business and marketing courses for this target population. Some course titles (i.e. College Accounting, College Marketing) and content (i.e. more cases and projects) may need to be revised.

4. More intense recruitment of college-bound students using a variety of techniques should attract more students to secondary business and marketing courses. These could include college business nights, guest business speakers, and successful business alumni.

5. Enhanced linkages with school administrators and guidance counselors to better meet the academic needs of college-bound business students.

6. Enhanced linkages with parents and students to stress that secondary business and marketing courses have a positive impact on college business studies.

7. Increase the access to marketing education by expanding course offerings in secondary schools where they are not presently offered.

8. Greater awareness should be developed of the availability importance, and value of the clubs DECA and FBLA.

9. Increase access to the clubs DECA and FBLA by developing more chapters in schools where they are not presently available.

QUESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

To further clarify the study addition questions of interest include the following:

1. Did students consider themselves college-bound?

2. At what time did they decide to become a business major?

3. What are the reasons students did not select business courses while in high school (peer pressure, parental pressure, lack of time, lack of guidance, inadequate courses)?

4. How satisfied were the students with the quality of secondary business courses?

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MARKETING EDUCATION BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP in answering the following questions. Please DARKEN THE ANSWER that best describes your education.

SECTION I: EDUCATION

1. Have you previously completed an INTRODUCTORY MARKETING COURSE at a 4 YEAR COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY? DO NOT INCLUDE THIS COURSE.

   a) YES b) NO

2. Have you previously completed an INTRODUCTORY MARKETING COURSE at a 2 YEAR COLLEGE, COMMUNITY COLLEGE OR TECHNICAL INSTITUTE?

   a) YES b) NO

3. If Yes to Question 1 or 2: This previous marketing course has helped me in my present marketing course.

   a) Strongly Agree b) Agree c) Undecided
   d) Disagree e) Strongly Disagree

4. Have you previously completed an INTRODUCTORY MARKETING OR DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION COURSE at a HIGH SCHOOL?

   a) YES b) NO (SKIP TO QUESTION 7)

5. IF YES: Name of Course High School Where Completed Year
   DO NOT DARKEN
   LEAVE BLANK

6. If YES: This previous marketing course has helped me in my present marketing course.

   a) Strongly Agree b) Agree c) Undecided
   d) Disagree e) Strongly Disagree

SECTION II: WORK EXPERIENCE

7. Are you presently employed in a position that would include marketing activities such as sales, retailing, marketing research, distribution, promotion, or advertising.

   a) YES If YES: PLEASE ANSWER QUESTION 8 to QUESTION 25.

   b) NO If NO: PLEASE GO TO SECTION III. (Question 12)

8. Please write YOUR JOB TITLE and EMPLOYER in upper left corner of answer sheet. LEAVE THIS ANSWER BLANK ON YOUR ANSWER SHEET.
DO NOT DARKEN A RESPONSE DO NOT DARKEN A RESPONSE

9. Number of Hours worked per week

   a) less than 10 b) 11 - 20 c) 21 - 30
   d) 31 - 40 e) over 40

10. My work experience has helped me with the content of this course.

    a) Strongly Agree b) Agree c) Undecided
    d) Disagree e) Strongly Disagree

11. My work experience has hurt the amount of time I would have allocated to this course.

    a) Strongly Agree b) Agree c) Undecided
    d) Disagree e) Strongly Disagree

SECTION III: HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION

Please darken the answer that best describes your high school education.

12. I attended the following type of high school.

a) public b) private c) other (please list)

13. My high school offered a course in marketing/distributive education.

a) YES b) NO c) UNSURE

14. My high school offered other business subjects such as accounting, business law, and management.

a) YES b) NO c) UNSURE

15. My high school offered business SKILL SUBJECTS such as data and word processing, keyboarding, typing, and shorthand.

a) YES b) NO c) UNSURE

16. The number of business courses (non skill) I completed in high school. (accounting, business law, and management)

a) none b) one c) two
d) three or four e) five or more

17. If answered NONE, did you ever consider taking a business course or business courses (non skill) in high school?

a) YES b) NO

18. The number of business SKILL courses I completed in high school (data and word processing, keyboarding, typing, and shorthand)

a) none b) one c) two
d) three or four e) five or more

19. If answered NONE, did you ever consider taking a business skill course or business skill courses in high school?

a) YES b) NO

20. My high school had a chapter of DECA. (Distributive Education Clubs of America).

a) YES b) NO c) UNSURE

21. My high school had a chapter of FBLA. (Future Business Leaders of America)

a) YES b) NO c) UNSURE

22. I was a member of DECA.

a) YES b) NO c) UNSURE

23. I was a member of FBLA.

a) YES b) NO c) UNSURE

24. The year I graduated from high school was:

a) before 1970 b) 1971 - 1975 c) 1976 - 1980
d) 1981 - 1984 e) 1985 - 1988

---

25. If you were a member of DECA or FBLA and/or have COMPLETED a high school marketing or business course, would you be willing to provide additional information?

a) YES b) NO

IF YES ONLY: CHECK ALL THAT APPLY

___Member DECA
___Member FBLA
___Completed High School Marketing Course
___Completed High School Business Course

IF YES ONLY:
Your Name

Address

City
Phone

THANK YOU

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS AS ADVISORS

A PAPER SUBMITTED TO THE
1989 ANNUAL MEETING OF THE
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PENSACOLA, FLORIDA

BY

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INTRODUCTION

Fifteen years ago in the Educational Research and Development Center at the University of West Florida, discussions were begun by the staff about the desirability of a teacher training program for the purpose of improving one-to-one teacher skills with students. If one looked at teacher education programs in universities, the conclusion could easily be reached that teachers were being trained to work with groups but instruction on one-to-one interaction, and on individual advising was rare.

The evolution of this program which focuses on how teachers work with actual students has resulted in a 2 1/2 day staff development workshop for teachers. It's best results have been with high school and middle school teachers but the program has also been conducted for the National Security Agency and is currently utilized in training U.S. Naval cryptology and electronics warfare instructors. Approximately 6,000 people have been through the program and evaluations have been conducted to measure both longitudinal and immediate effects. Currently the program is being delivered by the author to individual schools in the northwest part of Florida. It has also been selected by the United States Office of Education as a research based program to assist high risk students in dropout prevention programs.

In Florida, State Department of Education emphasis on "Teachers as Advisor Programs" across the state has created a demand for the training sequence described in this paper.

The purposes of this presentation will be to (1) give an overview of the entire training program, (2) let participants try out parts of the training, (3) explain the logic of the sequence, (4) discuss the effects of the program on individual students and teachers and on school morale, and (5) describe the task analysis, trainer moves and materials necessary for conducting the training.

DEFINITION OF TEACHERS AS ADVISOR PROGRAMS

Teachers as advisor programs have been implemented for three reasons:

1. to solve those academic and personal problems which impede student success in academic subjects;
2. to increase teacher/student personal contact with the goal of a permanent relationship while the student is in school;
3. to make teachers available to students for help in planning their academic future.

Usually teachers as advisor programs are implemented by (1) providing staff development, and (2) designing the logistical support and scheduling system whereby students meet with their advisor teachers during designated times during the school year. These programs are found in high school and more recently in middle school programs. This paper deals with staff development only.

RATIONALE

There have been attempts in the past to encourage teachers to be more involved in the academic planning and adjustment of students inside schools. Current reasons for promoting the teacher as advisor programs are:

1. There is a shortage of counselors. Sometimes the counselor to student ratio is 1 to 1,500.
2. Counselors are being asked to perform more administrative tasks.
3. Teachers have become conditioned to deal with groups rather than individuals.
4. There is a need for teachers to tune in to the context of student individuality.
5. Universities generally do not provide teachers training for dealing with problems one-to-one with students.

6. Teachers who are listening to students and involved with problems that students have in school subjects will, by their actions alone, improve the overall morale of the school and help reduce discipline problems.

DESCRIPTION OF THE TRAINING COURSE

The skills involved in the course are intended to be sequential and part of an overall attempt to do some team building with participants. Being on task and the concept of personal learning have been considered together rather than separately in building of the instructional sequence.

There are three main parts to the program, learning/teaching styles, communication/problem solving, and intervention model/demonstration. The course schedule and instructional sequence, which appear elsewhere in the paper, explicate each of the three parts of the course. At the end of the course, teachers work with actual students who have academic problems. The teachers then discuss their successes and their failures with each other in an environment that does not threaten their professional competence. The students' viewpoint is obtained by the trainer with a survey schedule. This information is made available to participants at the end of the program.

During the first day (learning/teaching styles), the context of individualization is introduced from the point of view of teachers and learners. Evaluations of the program indicate that teachers rate this individualization experience the highest. Trainer experience indicates that the problem identification and problem solving part of the program is the hardest for teachers to accomplish. The first seven hours are dedicated to understanding the MBTI (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator), a Jungian instrument. Learning the basic functions of the MBTI, calculating one's own dominant and least used personality preferences, problem solving using case studies and finally the assessment of learning and teaching styles complete the first part of the program.

Transition to the second part of the training is not easy but is made for the purpose of providing teachers and their colleagues the human skills necessary in carrying out the helping relationship. Listening, the helping process, problem identification and observing are taught individually, and finally, combined in small groups. Guidelines for giving and receiving feedback are introduced for the purpose of preparing participants for receiving and giving comments about behaviors that they see in each other as they work with students. Teachers spend time actually giving and receiving feedback to each other as part of this session. Integrating the MBTI and a six step model (Joyce, Weil) for conducting an intervention with a student are discussed. Then a demonstration with a volunteer student is carried out by the trainer. Teachers critique this demonstration.

Finally, teachers work with students individually. Two teachers observe a third teacher during a thirty minute session. The student's cumulative folder and MBTI are provided to the teachers ahead of time. The goal of this session is to discuss problem(s) the student is having in academic subjects in school. Each group of three teachers explains their session to the larger group by discussing the student's MBTI, how the session generally went, the advisor/teacher's MBTI, and how the steps in the model worked or did not work. The post-session interview, i.e., the student's view of the same session, is shared by the trainer. Through this process teachers learn from each other the skills necessary to work one-to-one with students in their school.

SUMMARY

This paper was designed to help interested educators put together this sequence or a similar sequence for improving the one to one skills of teachers. The program works best if begun with volunteers. About twelve teachers seems to be the optimum participant size.

Not all teachers in a school need to be included since there seems to be a carry over effect to non-program participants. Increases in faculty morale tend to begin as the faculty of a school approaches the fifty percent participation mark.

School-based approaches are more successful than district-wide efforts and the participation of the principal in the program is an important factor. Often programs begun with teachers and students end up being modified to include parents.

These days teachers become more and more conditioned to groups and to group techniques with little attention given to the process of individual advisement. Advisement has, as prerequisites, problem-solving behavior and the helping relationship. Experience with this teacher training program indicates that the problem identification process is the most difficult to teach and the part which is most often left out of the advising/helping process.

APPENDIX A

Program Objectives List

General Objective:

To apply a systematic step-by-step approach to helping students solve those academic or personal problems which are detriments to their academic performance in the classroom.

LEARNING/TEACHING STYLES

Specific Objective:

To identify teacher personality preference and relate it to instructional styles in the classroom.

Skills and Knowledge:

1. To be able to identify, contrast, and compare personality characteristics that set the stage for the context of individuality.

2. To demonstrate the ability to calculate the dominant and auxiliary preferences in the personality as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.

3. To demonstrate the ability to calculate the least preferred personality preferences as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.

4. To demonstrate a knowledge of one's own teaching and learning style and be able to recognize the implications of instructor/student teaching and learning differences.

5. To be able to cognitively understand the implications of learning and teaching styles, identify problems, and project solutions from case studies adapted from real situations from the permanent instructional system.

COMMUNICATION AND PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION SKILLS

Specific Objective:

To experience seeking help and learn to help another while working on the task of problem identification.

Skills and Knowledge:

1. In a two-way conversation, to be able to consider four levels of listening and decide from which level the student is responding.

2. To be able to transmit a restatement of a student's response back to the student as a clarifying technique for problem identification.

3. To be able to apply six guidelines for identifying a problem to a group and an individual instructional situation.

4. Given the definition of paraphrasing and an exercise in its use, participants, in trios, will use paraphrasing when appropriate as they critique each other's problem statements according to the six guidelines. Trio's will also critique communication behaviors.

5. To learn the concept and gain skills of giving and receiving feedback in the context of solving academic and personal problems that are deterrents to a student's ability to learn in the classroom.

INTERVENTION MODEL AND DEMONSTRATION

Specific Objective:

To use the counseling model to enable the student to identify the problem, own/accept that problem and establish a goal for a solution.

Skills and Knowledge:

1. To be able to repeat from memory, differentiate, and apply the six steps in the problem-solving model.

2. To be able to structure the six steps of the problem-solving model and place them in phase with specific preference trait(s) of the MBTI.

3. To demonstrate the problem-solving steps, including the MBTI phases, in an academic problem-solving situation utilizing an instructor student simulation.

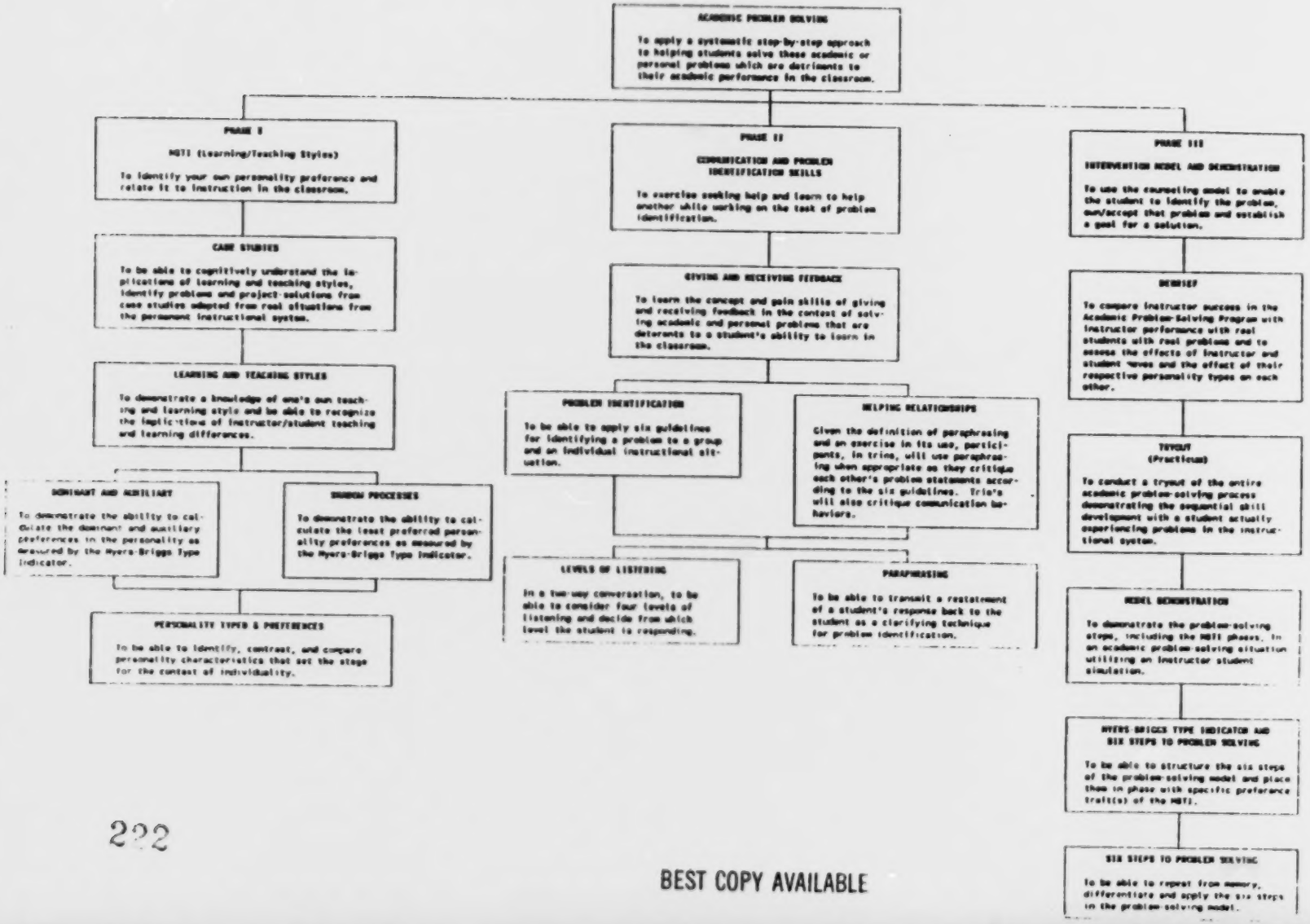
4. To conduct a tryout of the entire academic problem-solving process demonstrating the sequential skill development with a student actually experiencing problems in the instructional system.

5. To compare instructor success in the Academic Problem-Solving Program with instructor performance with real students with real problems and to assess the effects of instructor and student moves and the effect of their respective personality types on each other.

APPENDIX B

Instructional Sequence

INSTRUCTIONAL SEQUENCE FOR ACADEMIC PROBLEM-SOLVING TRAINING COURSE


ACADEMIC PROBLEM SOLVING
To apply a systematic step-by-step approach to helping students solve those academic or personal problems which are detriments to their academic performance in the classroom.
PHASE I
MBTI (Learning/Teaching Styles)
To identify your own personality preference and relate it to instruction in the classroom.
CASE STUDIES
To be able to cognitively understand the implications of learning and teaching styles, identify problems and project solutions from case studies adapted from real situations from the permanent instructional system.
LEARNING AND TEACHING STYLES
To demonstrate a knowledge of one's own teaching and learning style and be able to recognize the implications of instructor/student teaching and learning differences.
DOMINANT AND AUXILIARY
To demonstrate the ability to calculate the dominant and auxiliary preferences in the personality as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.
SHADOW PROCESSES
To demonstrate the ability to calculate the least preferred personality preferences as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.
PERSONALITY TYPES & PREFERENCES
To be able to identify, contrast, and compare personality characteristics that set the stage for the context of individuality.
PHASE II
COMMUNICATION AND PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION SKILLS
To exercise seeking help and learn to help another while working on the task of problem identification.
GIVING AND RECEIVING FEEDBACK
To learn the concept and gain skills of giving and receiving feedback in the context of solving academic and personal problems that are deterents to a student's ability to learn in the classroom.
PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION
To be able to apply six guidelines for identifying a problem to a group and an individual instructional situation.
HELPING RELATIONSHIPS
Given the definition of paraphrasing and an exercise in its use, participants, in trios, will use paraphrasing when appropriate as they critique each other's problem statements according to the six guidelines. Trio's will also critique communication behaviors.
LEVELS OF LISTENING
In a two-way conversation, to be able to consider four levels of listening and decide from which level the student is responding.
PARAPHRASING
To be able to transmit a restatement of a student's response back to the student as a clarifying technique for problem identification.
PHASE III
INTERVENTION MODEL AND DEMONSTRATION
To use the counseling model to enable the student to identify the problem, own/accept that problem and establish a goal for a solution.
DEBRIEF
To compare instructor success in the Academic Problem-Solving Program with instructor performance with real students with real problems and to assess the effects of instructor and student values and the effect of their respective personality types on each other.
TRYOUT
(Practicum)
To conduct a tryout of the entire academic problem-solving process demonstrating the sequential skill development with a student actually experiencing problems in the instructional system.
MODEL DEMONSTRATION
To demonstrate the problem-solving steps, including the MBTI phases, in an academic problem-solving situation utilizing an instructor student simulation.
MYERS BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR AND SIX STEPS TO PROBLEM SOLVING
To be able to structure the six steps of the problem-solving model and place them in phase with specific preference trait(s) of the MBTI.
SIX STEPS TO PROBLEM SOLVING
To be able to repeat from memory, differentiate and apply the six steps in the problem-solving model.

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APPENDIX C

Sample Instructor Lesson Guide

SAMPLE INSTRUCTOR LESSON GUIDE

Course Title: Academic Problem Solving

Group Size: 12-18 Participants

Time: 2 1/2 Calendar Days

Classroom Time: 17.5 Hours

Instructional Materials:
Instructional References:

1. Models of Teaching. Joyce, Bruce & Weil, Marsha.
2. Please Understand Me. Keirsey, David & Bates, Marilyn.
3. People Types and Tiger Stripes (2nd ed.). Lawrence, Gordon.
4. Gifts Differing. Myers, Isabel Briggs.

Instructional Aids:

1. 2 slide projectors with dissolve unit.
2. 1 large projection screen.
3. 1 video tape monitor and video tape cassette player.
4. Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) booklets and answer sheets.

General Objective:

When the trainers complete this instructional module, participants should be able to:

Apply a systematic step-by-step approach to helping students solve those academic or personal problems which are detriments to their academic performance in the classroom.

Specific Objectives:

When the trainers complete this instructional unit, participants will be able to:

1.1 Identify your own personality preference and relate it to instruction in the classroom.

1.2 Experience seeking help and learn to help another while working on the task of problem identification.

1.3 Use the counseling model to enable the student to identify the problem, own/accept that problem and establish a goal for a solution.

Instructional Aids (cont.):

5. MBTI scoring key.

6. MBTI report forms.

7. Personality profiles.

8. Trainee Handout packages.

9. Slides:
   (1) "Preferences, Tendencies, and Characteristics,"
   (2) "Dominant and Auxiliary,"
   (3) "Feedback."

10. Video Tapes:
"Academic Problem-Solving Model Demonstration" (I and II).

11. 1 newsprint flip chart or chalkboard and equipment.

12. 1 box broad tipped felt markers.

13. Masking tape.

14. Pencils (sharpened).

Evaluation:

A written pre- and post-assessment will be administered as well as a final performance test to aid the trainer in self evaluation.

Note to Trainers:

Prior to the practicum, on the third day, six to eight students from the school should be selected for participation in the counseling session. The number of students selected will be contingent upon the number of trainee trios (one counselor and two observers). Students are to be carefully screened as to the type of problems they are presently encountering, and there should be a <u>definite</u> problem indicated. However, no <u>serious</u> personal problems should be addressed during the trainee counseling session.

Handouts 12, 13, and 14 should <u>not</u> be placed in Trainee Package. Those handouts are to be given out in class during the Helping Relationship, round robin exercise.

APPENDIX D

Course Schedule

SCHEDULE

Learning/Teaching Styles Day 1	Classroom Hours
Introduction and Course Objectives	0.5
Administration of Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)	1.0
Introduction to Type	0.5
Feedback on the MBTI	0.5
Owning Your Type	1.5
Dominant and Auxiliary	0.5
Shadow Processes	0.5
Learning and Teaching Styles	0.5
Case Studies	1.0
	7 hrs.
Communication and Problem Identification Skills **Day 2**	
Levels of Listening	1.0
Paraphrasing	0.5
Problem Identification	1.0
The Helping Relationship	1.5
Giving and Receiving Feedback	1.0
Six Steps to Problem Solving	0.5
Problem-Solving Model Demonstration	0.5
Logistics	0.5
	6.5 hrs.
Intervention Model and Demonstration **Day 3**	
Prepare for Practicum and Review	0.5
Student/Teacher Problem Solving	0.5
Feedback to Teachers and Student Interviews	1.0
Debrief/Problem-Solving Session	1.5
Evaluation and Post Test	0.5
	4 hrs.
TOTAL	**17.5 hrs.**

REFERENCES

Joyce, Bruce & Weil, Marsha. Models of Teaching. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1986.

Keirsey, David & Bates, Marilyn. Please Understand Me. California: Prometheus Nemesis Books, 1978.

Lawrence, Gordon. People Types and Tiger Stripes (2nd ed.). Florida: Center for Applications of Psychological Type, Inc., 1979.

Myers, Isabel Briggs. Gifts Differing. California: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc., 1980.

Audio Visual Materials

(1) Slides (2 Trays)
"Personal Preferences, Tendencies, and Characteristics from the MBTI" with Audio Cassette Tape

(2) Slides (2 Trays)
"Dominant and Auxiliary" with Audio Cassette Tape

(3) Slides (2 Trays)
"Feedback" with Audio Cassette Tape

(4) Video Tape
"Counseling Model"

Equipment List

2 slide projectors with dissolve unit
1 large projection screen
1 video tape monitor and video tape cassette player

Table II

Background Information

Question	Yes		No		n
	n	%	n	%	
7. Held previous office	123	.872	18	.128	141
8. Screening	121	.877	17	.123	138
10. Career intentions before enrolling in vocational education	84	.596	57	.404	141
11. College enrollment intentions before enrolling in vocational education	123	.866	19	.134	142
12. Change college plans after enrolling	15	.789	4	.211	19
13. Being an officer further encouraged college enrollment	118	.861	19	.139	137
15. Would you still run for state office	140	.986	2	.014	142

9. Elected or selected to be state officer:

	n	%
a) Elected	138	.986
b) Selected	2	.014
N	140	

14. Influenced into running for state office:

	n	%
Friends	14	.108
Chapter Advisor	91	.70
Principal	0	
Counselor	0	
Parent	1	.031
Myself	24	.185
N		

Marketing Educators' Readiness to Improve Students' Reasoning Skills: Report of an Exploratory Study

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Presented to
The National Marketing Education Research Conference
Pensacola, Florida
April 14 - 16, 1989

ABSTRACT

Marketing Educators' Readiness to Improve Students' Reasoning Skills: Report of an Exploratory Study

Robert L. Fritz

Fayetteville State University

An exploratory study was conducted to determine the status of high school Marketing Education teachers' skills and attitudes toward the improvement of reasoning skills among their students.

Data was collected at an inservice workshop in September, 1988 from twenty-one experienced Marketing educators: They had taught an average of ten years. Based on these findings, a format would be prepared to determine the needs of North Carolina Marketing Education teachers at their annual summer conference.

Findings indicated that teachers may need to improve their understandings of reasoning theory, and that their testing and grading practices might need modification if they are going to address more advanced forms of thinking and problem solving -- application, evaluation, and synthesis -- or if they expect to enlarge students' understandings of conceptual frameworks, values, and ennobling principles.

Because the teachers indicated that this topic was important, it was felt that they would participate in workshops that would enhance their skills in this domain.

The Situation

Since the end of World War II, several issues have loomed before the public, and each was seen, in various ways, as a threat to the quality of life in the United States. Among them, educational topics were frequently on the "front burner." For example, over thirty years ago, Sputnik led to a new emphasis on science and math education, while concerns about public school dropout rates influenced the Federal role in vocational education during the 1960's. Since then, the "basic skills" movement led to a plethora of reports on the learning deficiencies of students, covering virtually every program in public education, while more recently, "reasoning skills" surfaced as a major concern.

Because dilemmas often have different implications for separate educational programs, their relative importance needs to be established. Thus, for the vocationally oriented Marketing Education program, "reasoning skills" should be analyzed with reference to its potential impact on the development of occupational competence. By that reasoning, then, the following trends can be reviewed:

1. Jobs requiring the most reading, writing, and math are growing at the fastest rate, and those needing the least skills are disappearing at the fastest rates (Johnston & Parker, 1987).

2. In about one-hundred years, jobs will be divided into two basic categories - technical and professional (Swyt, 1987).

3. Any job that consists of basically routine activity will be automated out of existence (Swyt, 1987).

4. An estimated three out of four jobs in North Carolina will soon require education or training beyond high school (Latta, 1986).

5. Future jobs will require individuals to work with others in collaborative efforts, necessitating high levels of personal responsibility (Reich, 1988).

6. In the future, jobs will require advanced problem solving skills, including the development of creative solutions to complex situations (Feuer, 1987).

This data suggests that changes in the job market will involve technology, competition, and lifestyles. And, while some innovations will be more apparent than others, they suggest that the advanced educational needs of today's youths will have an impact on the activities of Marketing Education.

Not only will the anticipated transformations affect the tasks that people perform, they will also influence the way individuals think about their work. Thus, because the influence of marketing has grown, there will be an increased need for individuals who can effectively reason about the relationships of marketing concepts to buyer satisfactions. This contrasts with conditions that once suggested that marketing only had a small role in business.

During this century, changes in technology and competition influenced life in this country. During the 1970's, events caused a shift in the world economy, creating a global system that adversely influenced the American position (Swyt, 1987). Japan emerged as a leader in several categories, creating the impression that the newer competitive structure might have a negative effect on the quality of life in the United States (Ferguson, 1989).

As time passed, dependence on imported products expanded to include a variety of goods that were once "American made." Among them were televisions, automobiles, small appliances, and clothing. Eventually, an increasing American appetite for foreign goods caused a serious "balance of trade" problem, leading to the export of more trade dollars and a decline in the wealth of the country.

The net effect of some of these changes was that knowledge about distant events reached the average American quickly, and people traveled to remote places in record time, giving the impression that the globe was "shrinking." At the same time, the increased sophistication of technology ended the days of the "shade tree mechanic" as automobiles were computerized, while printed circuits and computer chips made it nearly impossible for novices to work on modern equipment. The net effect of these changes was that distances seemed less important, while the value of time, and the notion of what constituted an appropriate high school education seemed to be different.

The Social Environment

While the technological and competitive environments influenced the conduct of business, social institutions such as the home, religion, and schools, lost influence. Because they represented the traditional mechanisms through which the culture passed understandings about education, work, relationships, ethics, etc., to the next generation, their decline affected the quality of life for a significant segment of the population.

Changes in the social environment influenced the behavior of children. Larger numbers of them were likely to grow up

in situations that provided less order, security, and direction in life. Therefore, more youths had trouble developing a pattern of socially acceptable behavior. In schools, teachers taught "latch-key" children who were often poorly motivated, lacking in discipline, and were in trouble more often than other students (McCormick, 1987). Divorce rates, limited adult supervision, teen suicide, drug use, casual sexual behavior, etc., undermined learning and had a negative impact on education.

Among major institutions, religion traditionally held the highest esteem. However, the military ranked nearly as high in confidence measures by 1989 (AP, 1989) as participation in religious programs declined, even though most adults professed a belief in a "higher being." While religious leaders had less influence and denominational rituals lost their ability to lift people above everyday experiences, the decline was predicted to continue into the next century (Dunn, 1989). As an explanation for these changes, a leading expert on the anthropology of religion suggested that religious institutions were not addressing the needs of the twentieth century (Flowers, 1988).

Schools constitute the last social organization. Beginning over twenty years ago, they lost influence when the public questioned their efficacy and courts took controls away from some communities. Support declined, and indices of quality - SAT, and tests of achievement, etc., - suggested that parents were better educated than their children. As concerns about student progress were raised on every conceivable subject from geography, history, math, science, to physical education, graduation standards were modified and, in some states, the school year was lengthened.

In some regions of the country, people wondered if labor unions had influenced the professional interests of educators. A few felt that teachers were not concerned about the quality of their programs, while others believed that students had too many course options. At the same time, discipline seemed to be breaking down, and some wondered if public education could survive crisis after crisis.

To sum up, the three major social institutions - the home, religion, and schools - lost influence. Their importance was questioned and roles were changed. While they historically provided the glue that held the fabric of society together, their weakened condition seemed to leave a gap in the behavioral foundations of the culture. Thus, answers to deeper questions about "right" and "wrong," life, self-worth, and ethics were difficult to obtain, or were not transferred to the younger generation.

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Reform

Reformers set about to restore America to a more favorable competitive position. Some of them (Adler, 1988; Reich, 1988) believed that education was a critical factor in the revitalization of the business community, so they supported efforts to improve performance and to add courses to high school graduation requirements. Perhaps due to reforms, a decline in high school vocational enrollment was reported North Carolina (Latta, 1988).

In support of reform efforts, the President of the University of North Carolina stated that vocational programs taught concepts that had only limited value, and that ideas learned in them could easily be mastered outside the classroom (Spangler, 1987). Another influential "thinker" felt that, while in high school, students should concentrate on the development of general education skills, meaning those that all learners need, including vocational concepts, if they were needed by the larger population of students (Adler, 1988). Because job trends (e.g., Ferguson, 1989; Swyt, 1987) indicated that there would be a need for increased reasoning and self-management skills, the positions of some reformers suggested that vocational programs were not in step with the needs of society, especially if they taught specific concepts that had value for only a few students.

Later, when a university chancellor stated that vocational courses kept minorities and disadvantaged students from programs that were more critical to their mental development (Hackley, 1988), he appeared to reinforce a comment made by a North Carolina school superintendent. In remarks, the school officer indicated that the writers of "A Nation at Risk" implied that vocational courses did not improve students' "minds" (NCCVTE, 1985), again implicating the quality of vocational programs, and their roles in a rapidly changing social and technological system.

Perhaps in answer to some, the Council of State School Officers recommended that Congress change the Federal definition of vocational education so that it included a focus on "basic academic and higher order reasoning and problem solving" skills (Belcher, 1988). If such a recommendation became law, Marketing and other vocational programs would need to modify portions of their classroom teaching. As noted above, some reformers believe these changes are urgently needed.

Beyond the content of courses, some researchers have been concerned about the overall quality of instruction in public schools. They reported that between 75% and 85% of all teaching focused on the simple presentation of information to students (Ruggiero, 1989: Adler, 1988). Instruction of this

type may limit transfer skills, and could affect the reasoning used by students to evaluate educational concepts. Because the simple presentation of material is likely to focus on the comprehension of facts, but may not encourage learners to continue reasoning toward more comprehensive understandings, there is little likelihood that instruction will influence the behavior of the learner. The following example might help make this more understandable.

An Example

The State of North Carolina identified basic educational goals that were deemed appropriate for "all" students. Citizenship was among them. Because DECA incorporates activities that are designed to foster growth in civic consciousness, Marketing Education teachers should be interested in the following observation.

Ideally, "good citizens" should be interested in the life and quality of their country, and participation should be a normal activity for them. Yet, in the United States, "citizenship" does not appear to be valued by a large segment of the adult population as demonstrated by the fact that, compared to other democracies, the U.S. has the second lowest voter participation rate in the world (Moyers, 1988). During the most recent national election, less than half of the eligible voters participated in a unique process -- the peaceful change of leadership. Perhaps, because they know this, some officials mocked the election process by showing superficial interest in issues of national importance -- the national debt and trade problems. Those who voted returned incumbents to 98% of the positions of public responsibility.

Some "thinkers" felt that the days of our democracy might be limited (Commager, 1989; Adler, 1988). Because "citizenship" did not seem fashionable, and higher ethical standards had lost some of their value, the United States seemed to be losing the idealism that was required to sustain its system (Kohlberg & Kramer, 1969). Are teachers, including those in Marketing Education, at fault for this, or have other factors caused this circumstance to surface? Regardless of the causes(s), it seemed possible that an important educational goal was not being achieved. The behavior of many adults showed that they had not learned to be "good citizens."

Because advanced intellectual skills may not guarantee success any more than superior reasoning ability, the educational experiences of youths should include sound values and basic skills, as well as appropriate outlooks on life and the "habits of industry." Children are not merely intelligent creatures: They have developing personalities. Consequently, their humanity is as important as any other aspect of their

being. With so many young people living in circumstances that damage self-esteem, and so many more engaging in lifestyles that defeat the development of "healthy" personalities, it seems clear that teachers have an important duty to make learning experiences personal, meaningful, and ennobling.

"Defining and Clarifying the Reasoning Concept"

Though they use terms that describe thinking and problem solving skills, some educators need to be acquainted with the definitions ascribed to these concepts by researchers and writers in cognitive and behavioral research. Simply because it is often difficult to put specific thinking or problem solving theories to work in the classroom, mostly because of their abstract nature, educators might improve their own professional skills by becoming familiar with the approaches used by these theorists.

Given the tenor of modern life, educators would seem to have a duty to help students maximize their reasoning potential. Due to competitive and technological changes, students must be equipped to complete in a world that seems to be growing even smaller, but is becoming more sophisticated. At the same time, developments in the social environment suggest that the needs of learners should not be limited to the mind. The stability of life has changed, and many young people grow up facing major disadvantages.

Within that frame of reference, intelligence describes the "ability to learn and to criticize what is learned; to deal with abstractions; to learn from experience and to deal with new situations" (Good, 1973, p. 309); and, it also represents "thinking that is regulated by cognitive structures and evolves with their gradual development in order to be better adapted" (Brief, 1983, p. 214). Thus, intelligence is associated with "natural" ability, abstractions, the behavioral results of an experience, and is viewed as an integrated set of modifiable attributes.

Because of its frequent use, "learning" needs to be defined. Though its meaning may differ slightly, depending on the source being used, it usually means:

> ". . . a relatively permanent change in personality (including cognitive, affective, motivational, behavioral, experiential, and the like) and reflects a change in performance usually brought about by practice although it may arise from insight or other factors, including memory" (Sahakian, 1976, p. 3).

As noted, changes in behavior describe the influence of an educational experience, and thus have a role in assessing the intelligence applied to a learning situation.

In Good's (1973) text, over fifteen different types of intelligence were defined, suggesting that the term has a wide variety of applications. In sum, though, they suggest that, from the beginning of life, children exhibit decision making and reasoning abilities. While the quality of reasoning changes with age, experience, and personal factors, key skills can be identified early, even in the pre-verbal stage of development (Weiss, 1988).

While intelligence includes the attributes noted above -- ability, abstractions, and the behavioral results of an experience -- "reasoning," a term sometimes substituted for thinking or problem solving, was defined as "The mental processes of one who reasons; especially, the drawing of conclusions or inferences from observation, facts, or hypotheses"; "reason" is defined as "The basis or motive for an action, decision, or conviction" (American Heritage Dictionary, 1968). Consequently, values, principles, and conceptual frameworks influence steps used by learners to reason about educational experiences.

In his writings, Cronbach indicated that, by itself, intelligence provided an incomplete explanation of learner performance on educational tasks. He noted the following influences on the educational behavior of youths between ages 8 and 11:

> "Pupils from the higher social classes moved higher in the group in mental test performance; those whose fathers are manual workers hold the same position or decline in relative position.
>
> Within each class, the standing of pupils with encouraging parents rises more rapidly than that of pupils whose parents care little about education.
>
> Holding mental ability constant, achievement in arithmetic is strongly associated with degree of parental encouragement." (Cronbach, 1963, p. 221)

Social variables, such as the modeling behavior of parents and the quality of the home environment, contributed to mental development, thus supporting the position taken by Benjamin Bloom (1968), who posited that while the rate of learning may vary, ninety-percent of the students could achieve mastery if given adequate time to learn an educational task. Both of these writers suggested that achievement was influenced by nurturing experiences, and that lifestyles swayed personal development.

Because, as suggested above, thinking skills can be enhanced, educators should employ strategies that require learners to elevate their reasoning about career skills. One method for doing this was developed by Mortimer J. Adler. The essential goals of his approach are these: First, students should be instructed from an organized body of knowledge. Second, they should develop the reasoning skills associated with that body of knowledge through coaching, exercises and supervised practice. Third, youths should have understandings about ideas and values enlarged through Socratic questioning and active participation. In sum, this methodology is intended to provide learners with experiences that move them toward greater independence of thought (Adler, 1988).

While Mortimer Adler's approach involves a teaching strategy, Piaget's theory assesses the mental development of young people. Based on his theory the stage called "Formal Operations" was reached at some point between ages 11 and 15. At that level, individuals could use forms or structures in their thinking, and thus could reason about abstract information, develop hypotheses, and to consider the possibilities of an idea - though they may fail to take into account realities that influence the situation. As a consequence of reaching this stage, youths could systematically solve problems and were able to generalize educational concepts to situations outside the classroom. (Biehler, 1978, pp. 112-128)

According to Ginzberg and Opper (1979), not all youths in western society develop skills associated with the "Formal Operations" stage during the age span identified in Piaget's theory. One explanation for this centered around the social circumstances that influenced the development of these skills, meaning that, in the case of disadvantaged students, formal skills may not appear until adulthood. On the other hand, it was also believed that personal interest might encourage learners to use formal thinking skills, thus implicating the value of the experience as an educational motivator.

Cronbach (1963) evaluated Piaget's theory and suggested that, with each experience, learners go through a process that begins with intuition and ends with operational thought. Thus, unless prior knowledge provided a link to a new situation, the student would need to establish meaning by proceeding through a series of mental steps, consequently shows that preferences could influence the motivation to learn new ideas.

When learners are truly motivated, their interests are expressed by the identity they associate between the learning experience and their self-concept. In psychology, this relationship is termed "centrality." It describes the value of an event for a learner, suggesting that the more central an idea is to the self-concept, the more likely the idea will

be closely held and will therefore have an impact on behavior, whereas encounters that are not closely identified with the self will likely have little, if any, influence on behavior (Hawkins, Best & Coney, 1986).

Among educational theories, the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (Karthwhol, Bloom, & Mesia, 1964) describes how to assess mental skills. Thus, educators can establish a format to improve reasoning skills. However, they need to recognize that this theory is not a hierarchy, but instead presents a series of categories that may or may not measure sophisticated concepts - e.g. both a cook and a judge evaluate decisions regularly, the quality of reasoning is not equal, though both fall into the same category within the taxonomy (Weiss, 1988).

Perhaps, by knowing that students think and solve problems after working through a pattern, instructors may realize that no single process is used by all learners: Thus, some students reason through inductive strategies, while others use deductive methods. A few learners want numerous examples, and others prefer to follow well defined rules. Still, some employed a strategy that required them to compare and contrast variables, and a small group uses nearly all of the aforementioned strategies -- They appear to be slow, but are sure of themselves, and could reason from several perspectives (Fritz & Williams, 1985; Hill, 1976). Importantly, these styles are not solely explained by intelligence.

Experienced educators have long known that skills used by students differ in quantity and quality: Thus, some grasped ideas quickly and their behavior was clearly affected by learning experiences; a few learners understood readily, though their behavior did not change; and, some had trouble comprehending ideas. While reasoning and intelligence explain a portion of these events, personality, motivation, and social circumstances contribute additional information.

Since the patterns described above related to thinking and problem solving, other designs can be applied to instructional program and teaching methods. In vocational programs, the emphasis placed on the development of learners' vocational competence suggests that instruction should provide experiences that are central to the identity of the individual (e.g. Hawkins, Best, & Coney, 1986; A. Adler, 1964). At the same time, progress toward occupational goals should be reported so that learners recognize the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor consequences of their learning behavior. In this light, the criterion reference measures employed in Marketing Education programs, when delivered through a performance based instructional system, should provide many of the elements that are needed to stimulate the vocational interests of learners.

Yet, when working with some learners, Marketing Education teachers recognize that "normal" rules may not apply, especially for some disadvantaged learners. Though intellectual skills may be present in gifted amounts, they may not result in quality performance because other variables dominated the educational behavior of the learner. Because one out of every five children now lives in poverty (O'Hare, 1989), learning problems could become more frequent in the future.

In close, there are many factors that influence the reasoning and problem solving abilities of high school students. While intelligence may describe the relative efficiency of an individual's work, it does not provide an understanding of the "why" or "how" of learning. Motivation and reasoning processes are involved in these areas, and may work independent of the learners ability to understand or to think about abstract thoughts.

The Problem

Because of the situations facing the modern classroom, as well as the status of knowledge about thinking and problem solving, the central mission of this project was to identify selected attitudes and beliefs held by secondary school Marketing Educators toward reasoning skills. The importance of this problem seemed clear, as evidenced by trends in the educational environment, including public support for programs and the dynamics of the technological, competitive, and social climates.

Thus, three investigative questions were identified:

One: Do secondary school Marketing educators have the knowledge they need to improve students' reasoning and problem solving skills?

Two: Do the testing and grading procedures used in secondary school Marketing Education programs contribute to the improved reasoning skills of students?

Three: Do the general perceptions of secondary school Marketing Education teachers demonstrate concern for the quality of students' reasoning skills.

Methodology

To assess the problem, an exploratory study was prepared. Boyd, Westfall and Stasch (1985) indicated that this method involved the establishment of a base-line of information. Consequently, it is rather unstructured, and did not call for

hypotheses or a formal design. This type of study is often used when not enough information is available to establish parameters for a study, or when it is desirable to reason about the possible directions of future research projects.

In the present study, three investigative questions were identified for inquiry, though no statistical significance was attached to them because of their exploratory nature. Percentages and raw numbers were used to report results, because the population was relatively small, and it was felt that statistical analysis would add no additional meaning.

To obtain data, an inventory was designed to collect descriptive information through open-end and forced-choice items (A copy is in Appendix A). At an in-service meeting during September, 1988, the survey was distributed to 21 secondary school Marketing Education teachers from south-eastern North Carolina. Completed forms were summarized and tabulated with the software package titled "Peoplefacts." They were processed on an IBM PC/XT. Percentages were generated and rounded to the nearest whole number.

In April 1989, this data will be presented to the group of teachers that provided the information. At that time, a focus group method will be used to add insight to these findings. Then, in August, 1989, a revised format will be used to collect data from the Marketing Education teachers attending the annual summer conference of the North Carolina Vocational Association.

Population demographics are in Appendix B. They show that 75% of the population was female, and that they taught Marketing Education an average of 10 years. Their average age was 39 years.

Findings

Three areas of investigation were established for this exploratory study, and each is reported below. Through this data, it was hoped that a direction for further research on the reasoning skills topic could be established.

One: Do secondary school Marketing educators have the knowledge they need to improve students' reasoning and problem solving skills?

Survey responses by the twenty-one teachers indicated how well they understood several theories, each of which could play a role in the enhancement or development of reasoning skills among learners. As reported on Table 1, a number of

them indicated that they could not implement Bloom's Taxonomy, Piaget's Theory, or the Socratic Method in their work. Of the

Table 1

Understanding of Important Educational Theories

Do You Understand the Following Concepts Completely Enough To Implement Them in Your Activities?

YES	NO	N/A	Theory/Concept
5 (25%)	8 (40%)	8 (40%)	Bloom's Taxonomy
2 (10%)	10 (50%)	9 (45%)	Piaget's Theory
1 (5%)	10 (50%)	10 (50%)	Socratic Method
9 (45%)	5 (25%)	7 (35%)	Cog/Learning Style
15 (75%)	2 (10%)	4 (20%)	Task Analysis
13 (65%)	2 (10%)	6 (30%)	Behavioral Objectives
7 (35%)	6 (30%)	8 (40%)	Perform. Based Instr.

remaining items, they suggested that they could implement Task Analysis (75%), Behavioral Objectives (65%), Cognitive Styles (45%), Performance Based Instruction (35%).

Forty percent or more did not respond to the items about the Socratic Method, Piaget's or Bloom's theories, or performance based instruction. Among the concepts on Table 1, those associated with vocational instruction most often received a "yes" answer, while those from educational psychology had more "no" or "n/a" responses.

Next, the educators were asked to interpret the ability of the Marketing Education community to enhance students' reasoning skills. As shown on Table 2, about eighty percent of them felt that they could or were already helping students improve their thinking or problem solving skills - only one person disagreed with the statement, while four were neutral.

Table 2

Ability to Improve Thinking/Problems Solving Skills

Marketing Education Teachers Are Able To Improve Students' "Thinking" or "Problem Solving" Skills.

4 (20%)	I Strongly Agree With The Statement
12 (60%)	I Agree With The Statement
4 (20%	Neutral
0 (0%)	I Do Not Agree With The Statement
1 (5%)	I Strongly Disagree With The Statement

Thus, results on Table 2 suggest that nearly half of the teachers (55%) felt that about half or fewer of their students were capable of reasoning in formal or abstract terms. Only seven (35%) felt that a majority of their students could employ these skills.

Table 3

Students' Abstract Reasoning Skills

What Percent of Your Students Do You Believe Are Able To Think in Formal and Abstract Terms (Use Systematic Steps in Solving Problems, Consider Several Variables At The Same Time, or Generalize Principles To Many Different Situations)?

2 (10%) Over 75%; 5 (25%) 50-74%; 5 (25%) 25-49%;
7 (35%) Under 25%; 2 (10%) No Resp.

Nearly one-third of the teachers believed that fewer than one in four of their students could think in abstract terms.

Table 4

Three-Step Approach to Improved Reasoning - M. Adler

Percent of Class Time That Is Devoted to:

	+75% N/%	50-74% N/%	25-49% N/%	-25% N/%	N/R N/%
Presenting Information To Students (Lectures, Presentations, etc. -- Teacher Presents and Students Listen):	0/0%	13/65%	5/25%	0/0%	3/15%
Coaching Students in The Development of Basic Skills (Reading, Writing, Math, Spelling, etc.):	0/0%	0/0%	3/15%	11/55%	7/35%
Questions and Discussions Related to Information Previously Presented in Class, But Is Not Merely A Review (Teacher and Students Ask Questions, Probe For Understanding, Relate Previously Learned Concepts):	2/10%	3/15%	11/55%	1/5%	4/20%

The data on Table 4 indicates that Marketing educators used each of the three stages developed by Mortimer Adler. Most class time (between 50-74%) was devoted to the presentation of information to students, while the least time was spent coaching students in the development of basic skills (less than 25% of class time). In between these two, teachers reported that they questioned and discussed concepts with students. However, it was difficult to determine if the approaches reported by these teachers were similar to the ones defined by Mortimer Adler (1988).

Summary:

The data provided for this question suggested that the Marketing Educators were not familiar with several theories (Bloom's Taxonomy, Piaget's Theory, and the Socratic Method), even though they believed they were improving students' reasoning skills. At the same time, they reported that they could implement several constructs (Task Analysis, Behavioral Objectives, and Cognitive Learning Theory), while one-third said they could use Performance Based Instructional concepts.

Further, they often believed that students lacked skills associated with Piaget's formal operations stage of mental development (Formal and abstract skills), and indicated that they did not spend a great deal of class time coaching youths in the development of basic skills, though they devoted the largest segment of class time (50-74%) to the presentation of information to students.

Two: Do the testing and grading procedures used in secondary school Marketing Education programs contribute to the improved reasoning skills of students?

Techniques for assessing and communicating student progress were addressed for question two. Among the items, Table 5 shows that ninety percent of the teachers prepared exams after teaching educational concepts; only two wrote them prior to teaching.

Table 5

When Exams are Prepared

When Do You Prepare Exams: (Check One)	
18	(90%) After Teaching The Concepts
2	(10%) Before Teaching The Concepts
1	(5%) No Response

Table 6

Source(s) of Exams

Percent of Exams You Write Yourself

12	(60%)	Over 90%	2 (10%)	50-74%	1 (5%) Under 25%
2	(10%)	75 - 89%	4 (20%)	25-49%	0 (0%) Zero/None

Percent of Exams Written By Text Publishers That You Use

0	(0%)	Over 90%	4 (20%)	50-74%	1 (5%) Under 25%
0	(0%)	75 - 89%	2 (10%)	25-49%	10 (50%) Zero/None

Percent of Exams Written by IDECC (MarkEd Resource Center)

1	(5%)	Over 90%	0 (0%)	50-74%	4 (20%) Under 25%
0	(0%)	75 - 89%	3 (15%)	25-49%	13 (65%) Zero/None

Other: Please Identify Source:_____

0	(0%)	Over 90%	0 (0%)	50-74%	0 (0%) Under 25%
0	(0%)	75 - 89%	0 (5%)	25-49%	19 (95%) Zero/None
			1 (5%)	No Response	

Perhaps as important as when exams are written is where they were developed. Table 6 shows that most exams were written by the instructors, while other tests were developed by text publishers or MarkEd. Indeed, sixty percent of the teachers reported writing over ninety percent of their exams, while only four instructors said that they used tests developed by textbook publishers over half of the time.

Table 7

Methods of Measuring Growth

For The Following, Place A Percentage To Indicate How Often You Use Each Item: (As a Percent of Total Items)

	+75% N/%	50-74% N/%	25-49% N/%	-25% N/%	N/R N/%
Multiple Choice:	0/0%	2/10%	6/30%	11/55%	2/10%
True and False:	0/0%	0/0%	4/20%	9/45%	8/40%
Short Discussion:	0/0%	3/15%	5/25%	8/45%	5/25%
Socratic Method:	0/0%	0/0%	0/0%	2/10%	19/95%
Essay Items:	0/0%	0/0%	5/25%	7/35%	9/45%
Individual Confer.:	0/0%	0/0%	3/15%	1/5%	17/85%
Demonstrations:	0/0%	0/0%	1/5%	10/50%	10/50%
Presentations:	0/0%	0/0%	2/10%	8/40%	11/55%

Only one instructor reported using exams from MarkEd over ninety percent of the time, while nearly two-thirds indicated that they never used exams from that source.

The data on Table 7 shows that these instructors tended to favor these formats - multiple choice, short discussion, true/ false, and essay - over these - Socratic Method, individual conferences, demonstrations, and presentations.

Grading constituted a third aspect of this question. Two different items asked instructors to report first, the system most often used to prepare grades and, second, the one they would most like to employ as an "ideal" evaluation method. As shown on Table 8, sixty percent of the teachers graded with the standard percentage approach, while only fifteen percent reported using criterion reference measures.

While the methods checked on Table 8 represented actual practices, ideal preferences were reported on Table 9. Nearly

Table 8

Grading System Being Used

When Preparing Grades, Which Do You Use: (Check Most Used)

0	(0%)	Bell Distribution
12	(60%)	Percent Distribution - 90% = A, etc.
8	(30%)	Student Learning Capacity
3	(15%)	Criterion Reference Measures

half said that they would like to use an "ideal" grading system that was based on "student learning capacity," while one-third indicated that the percentage system would be an ideal form of grading for them.

Table 9

Ideal Grading Preference

In An Ideal Situation, Which Grading Would You Prefer To Use? (Check Your Preference)

0	(0%)	Bell Distribution
7	(35%)	Percent Distribution - 90% = A, etc.
10	(50%)	Student Learning Capacity
3	(15%)	Criterion Reference Measures
1	(5%)	No Response

Summary:

When asked to describe their testing and grading procedures and preferences, this population of Marketing Education teachers indicated that, in some instances, they used methods that were associated with non-vocational courses. While they most often wrote their own exams after teaching concepts, they used multiple choice and discussion items, and some included essay and true-false questions. Once completed, students were graded with a percentage distribution system (A = +90%, etc.), though about eight of the twenty-one teachers said they graded on the basis of student learning capacity.

If given an ideal situation, a total of ten teachers would evaluate progress on the basis of student learning capacity, an increase of two from the actual method being used, while one in three would use the percent distribution pattern cited above, a decline of four from the practice being currently employed.

Three: Do the general perceptions of secondary school Marketing Education teachers demonstrate concern for the quality of students' reasoning skills.

As a final area, the teachers were asked to respond to three items that called for judgments about the topic.

Table 10 indicates that over ninety percent of these instructors either felt that the emphasis being placed on this issue was "about right" or that it was "not enough": Only two educators felt that there was to much emphasis.

Table 10

Assessing Emphasis on Thinking/Problem Solving

Do You Feel That The Emphasis Being Placed on enhancing Student "Thinking" and "Problem Solving" Skills Is Warranted?		
2	(10%)	No, There is To Much Emphasis
10	(50%)	There Is Not Enough Emphasis
9	(45%)	The Emphasis Is About Right

Regarding the need for additional training, Table 11 shows that nearly forty-five percent of the teachers indicated that there was a need for in-service workshops to improve skills in this area, while one-third gave neutral responses and twenty-five percent did not agree with the statement.

Table 11

Need for Workshops on Thinking/Problem Solving

Marketing Educators Should Have In-service Workshops To Learn How To Enhance Students' "Thinking" & "Problem Solving" Skills.	
1	(5%) I Strongly Agree With The Statement
8	(40%) I Agree With The Statement
7	(35%) Neutral
3	(15%) I Disagree With The Statement
2	(10%) I Strongly Disagree With The Statement

Beyond basic attitudes, the last item requested teachers to indicate two changes they may need to make to do a better job with the reasoning concept. Table 12 contains their answers, though they are not listed in any special order. They appear to suggest that program management skills would need to be modified, along with teaching practices.

Summary:

Results reported for this question indicated that a large percentage of the teachers felt that reasoning skills either constituted an area that needed more emphasis, or that was receiving the attention that it deserved. At the same time,

Table 12

Factors Needing Most Work to Improve Students "Thinking" and "Problem Solving" Skills

List What You Feel Would Be The Two Most Important Factors You Would Need to Work On if You Were Expected To Improve The Manner in Which Your Teaching Resulted in Improved "Thinking" and "Problem Solving" Skills for Students.
Time - Finding time to develop new activities
Organization
Methods of Teaching - Learning which ones work best
Better Planning
New Motivation Techniques
Selection of more creative questions
Use more realistic and relevant examples
Discipline - Individuals require individual attention
Evaluation - Am I measuring what I am teaching?
Quit handing out everything on a platter
Completing tasks for students

they indicated that in-service workshops may be useful as ameans for helping them improve their teaching effectiveness, though one-third were neutral on this subject.

Among changes that would need to be made to help students improve their reasoning skills, the most common suggestions focused on program management and teaching practices.

Discussion

This exploratory study was conducted to establish a baseline that could be used to estimate the need for further studies on the concept of "reasoning" as it applied to Marketing Education. Three investigative questions were examined, and each is discussed below.

One: Do secondary school Marketing educators have the knowledge they need to improve students' reasoning and problem solving skills?

The results of this analysis suggested that, as a group, these Marketing Education teachers did not understand selected theories well enough to implement them, though they may provide a useful foundation for the improvement of students' reasoning skills. Yet, they believed that they were improving their youths' reasoning skills, though these educators felt that many of their students were not able to reason in formal or abstract terms.

Among the theories, Bloom's Taxonomy has implications for the structure of instructional objectives, though Piaget's theory describes the stages of mental development through which learners pass. And, because they may not have understood these concept, some Marketing educators might have misinterpreted the reasoning skills possessed by their students, believing they lacked formal thinking abilities when, in some cases they simply had not been developed.

Though research shows that, in some cases, youths may not develop formal operations skills until adulthood (Ginzberg & Opper, 1979), under normal circumstances, learners should be able to consider the merits of ideas, see the possibilities in concepts, and have skills at relating the outside world to their lives before they reach eleventh or twelfth grade. Thus, it may be possible that some educators may need to improve their knowledge of Piaget's theory. At the same time, they should study "centrality" to recognize that learning motivation is affected by personal interests, as well as by personal maturation.

Finally, the three-step process developed by Mortimer J. Adler, and which was used to develop the question for Table 4, did not appear to provide any clear indication about instructional procedures or quality. However, if inferences can be made, these instructors may not be using the same thoughts to describe the concepts presented by Adler (1988).

In sum, then, the data suggested that these instructors may need additional information if they were going to improve students' reasoning skills, though a few may be more adept than would some others. And, with reference to the problem of this study, by looking at the knowledge possessed by Marketing educators, it may be possible to determine how well they understand the theoretical concepts that influence reasoning skills.

Two: Do the testing and grading procedures used in secondary school Marketing Education programs contribute to the improved reasoning skills of students?

This question asked the twenty-one instructors to provide information about methods used to test and grade student progress toward educational goals. As a general picture, results showed that these teachers often wrote their own exams, but mostly after they taught the concepts. On their tests, several of them included multiple choice and short discussion items, with a few using essay and true-false questions. When they reported progress, the traditional percentage system (A = +90%, etc.) was frequently used, though several preferred an ideal procedure that relied on the learning capacity of the student.

Teachers often checked methods that were associated with non-vocational courses, not including the performance based approach used in Marketing Education: While a number of teachers no-doubt adhere to this approach, no clear standard could be found.

By comparing the information on Table 1 with the evaluation methods they used, it seemed that a few Marketing Educators might have difficulty "getting at" certain reasoning skills - application, evaluation, synthesis. Unless their testing methods required students to compare and/or contrast ideas, evaluate the merits of concepts, or even create new frameworks, they might leave youths with nothing more than comprehension level experiences.

When preparing grades, several educators used the percentage distribution concept. Because it often has no relationship to any meaningful criteria, it can not be justified for use in Marketing Education programs. This system is often arbitrary, even though it provides a relative

comparison among individuals on the basis of an artificial standard. Thus, it may be useful to determine why several of these Marketing educators used this method.

As reported earlier (e.g. Ruggiero, 1989: Adler, 1988), most teaching focuses on the simple presentation of information. If, then, testing merely asks students to recall information, exams can not help students learn to reason about concepts on anything but an elementary level (e.g. Bloom's Taxonomy). The unfortunate consequence of this is that students would not develop skills at generalizing information, or at seeing new possibilities to apply an established framework.

Because it was established that reasoning and intelligence are influenced by social circumstances (Cronbach, 1963), it may be critical to determine if the teaching and testing methods being used by these educators actually enhance the vocational competence of students in Marketing Education programs: students must develop advanced skills, so teachers should use testing and grading procedures that provide estimates of personal growth in reasoning ability, as well as in facts and various forms of information.

Only advanced testing methods (Socratic method, demonstration, etc.) require students to enlarge their reasoning so that more critical values and principles can be brought into the discussion, or so that learners use generalization skills when applying frameworks to significant concepts; much as Piaget suggested as possible for eleventh and twelfth grade students.

Because of their concern about student motivation, Marketing educators should use testing and grading methods that can influence the self-concepts of students, especially if ideas have important implications for their identity. Further, by taking time to address their personal needs, instructors have a greater chance of helping learners establish relationships between vocational competence, personal values, principles, and self-worth. During the assessment phase, many of these vital elements can be used to stimulate changes in learners' behavior.

Finally, with reference to the problem of this study, it seemed evident that this complex issue needs to be clarified. Because Marketing Education programs have been using a performance based theory, grading and reporting procedures should tie into the development of vocational competence. Because several educators suggested that they used non-vocational methods, it may be valuable to know the extent of this practice in public schools.

Three: Do the general perceptions of secondary school Marketing Education teachers demonstrate concern for the quality of students' reasoning skills.

Initially, most of these instructors indicated that this topic was important to them - they suggested that either not enough attention was being given to it, or that the emphasis was about right. Further, several of them indicated an interest in workshops that would improve their skills at enhancing thinking and problem solving skills. And, finally, they suggested that improved program management and teacher effectiveness skills would help them become more adept at improving reasoning skills among students.

Because of their interests, it would seem that these Marketing Education teachers would be willing to learn how to improve the reasoning skills of their students, or at least address those areas that need the most attention.

Among the needs of some teachers, perhaps the most significant is the development of a conceptual base that can be used to apply thinking and problem solving issues. Until a framework is established, it may be difficult to determine when their efforts have turned in the right direction. Because these instructors have the interest, it is likely that they would gladly participate in a process that would enhance their own skills, and thereby equip them to influence the reasoning skills of their students.

Conclusion

In brief, it seemed that the problem addressed by this study was answered. With little doubt, it seems that additional studies would be needed to clarify several points: such as the understandings that Marketing Education teachers have about the basic terminology associated with reasoning skills; the beliefs that teachers have about the reasoning skills possessed by their students; the three-step model attributed to Mortimer Adler; and the relationships that exist between testing, grading and assisting youths in the development of vocational competence.

Fundamentally, then, it would seem that the essential point came to this: While these Marketing educators were very much concerned about improving their students' reasoning skills, they may need to be better prepared to delivery of this type of skill; At the same time, they may need to alter testing and grading methods to "get at" advanced types of thinking and problem solving.

In conclusion, issues were identified that could be used to launch additional studies related to reasoning skills in Marketing Education programs. Because concerns have been raised over the competitiveness of American business, it is essential that the next generation of workers be equipped with advanced reasoning skills, and that today's students be taught how to reason about values in a dysfunctional society. Finally, to remain viable in the face of mounting questions aimed at the quality of vocational programs, Marketing Educators must address contemporary issues and take steps to insure, as much as possible, that today's teenagers are being provided the skills they will need for life and work that will last until the middle of the next century, or beyond.

Recommendations

Results from this exploratory study seemed to indicate that the following studies should be conducted to shed more light on the processes being used to help students reason about the concepts being taught in Marketing Education programs.

1. A theoretical framework should be developed and validated that would enable beginning teachers to implement a conceptual approach to the enhancement of high school students' reasoning skills.

2. A study needs to be conducted to determine if the conceptual framework being used in the content portion of Marketing Education compliments the one that undergraduate students often learn in marketing courses.

3. An experimental study should be undertaken to identify testing methods that could improve students' vocational competence and reasoning skills at the same time.

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APPENDIX A

A SURVEY OF CURRENT ISSUES AFFECTING MARKETING EDUCATION

The purpose of this survey is to gather information about issues that relate to Marketing Education. The more we can learn about our profession, the better able we will be to answer our critics on matters of importance to them. Thus, the data you provide is important, and your cooperation with this activity could make a difference in our profession.

Please provide complete information for the items below. We need this information to address issues of importance to Marketing Education. In advance, thank you for helping us with this project.

Sex:_____ Age:_____
Number of Years of Teaching:_____
Number of Years Teaching Marketing Education:_____

Do You Understand the Following Concepts Completely Enough To Implement Them in Your Teaching Activities? (Please Answer "Yes" or "No" To Each Of The Following)

_____ Bloom's Taxonomy of Cognitive Objectives
_____ Piaget's Theory of Mental Development
_____ Socratic Method
_____ Cognitive or Learning Style Theory
_____ Task Analysis
_____ Behavioral Objectives
_____ Performance Based Instruction

Focus For a Minute On Each Of The Following Concepts In Terms Of Their Value As A Tool To Improving Teaching And Learning. Then, State In Brief Terms What You "Most Like" And "Most Dislike" About Each Of Them As Aids To Improved Teaching and Learning In The Marketing Education Program.

Bloom's Taxonomy of Cognitive Objectives:
Most Like/Most Dislike:
Piaget's Theory of Mental Development:
Most Like/Most Dislike:
Socratic Teaching:
Most Like/Most Dislike:
Cognitive or Learning Style Theory:
Most Like/Most Dislike:
Task Analysis:
Most Like/Most Dislike:
Behavioral Objectives:
Most Like/Most Dislike:
Performance Based Instruction:
Most Like/Most Dislike:

Do You Feel That The Emphasis Being Placed on Enhancing Student "Thinking" and "Problem Solving" Skills Is Warranted? (Check One):

_____ No, There is To Much Emphasis
_____ There Is Not Enough Emphasis
_____ The Emphasis is About Right

Marketing Education Teachers Are Able To Improve Students' "Thinking" or "Problem Solving" Skills.

___ I Strongly Agree With The Statement
___ I Agree With The Statement
___ Neutral
___ I Do Not Agree With The Statement
___ I Strongly Disagree With The Statement

Marketing Educators Should Have Inservice Workshops To Learn How To Enhance Students' "Thinking" and "Problem Solving" Skills.

___ I Strongly Agree With The Statement
___ I Agree With The Statement
___ Neutral
___ I Disagree With The Statement
___ I Stongly Disagree With The Statement

When Do You Prepare Exams: (Check One)

____ After Teaching The Concepts
____ Before Teaching The Concepts

For The Following, Place The Appropriate Percentage on Each Line:

%

_____ Percent of Exams You Write Yourself
_____ Percent of Exams Written By Text Publishers That You Use
_____ Percent of Exams Written by IDECC (MarkEd Resource Center) That You Use
_____ Other: Please Identify Source:_____

When Preparing Grades, Which System Do You Use: (Check Most Used)

___ Bell Distribution ___ Percent Distribution - 90% = A, etc.
___ Student Learning Capacity ___ Criterion Reference Measures

In An Ideal Situation, Which Grading Would You Prefer To Use? (Check Your Preference)

___ Bell Distribution ___ Percent Distribution - 90% = A, etc.
___ Student Learning Capacity ___ Criterion Reference Measures

For The Following, Place A Percentage Number To Indicate The Value Of Each Evaluation Method That You Use

%		%	
_____	Multiple Choice Items	_____	Socratic Method
_____	True and False Items	_____	Individual Conferences
_____	Short Discussion Items	_____	Demonstrations
_____	Essay Items	_____	Presentations

For The Following, Place the Appropriate Percentage on Each Line

Reasoning Skills in Marketing Ed. - R. Fritz

To Indicate How Instructional Time Is Used For Each Item (The Total Should be No More Than 100%):

%

_____ Percent of Class Time That Is Devoted to Presenting Information To Students (Lectures, Presentations, etc. -- Teacher Presents and Students Listen)

_____ Percent of Class Time That Is Devoted to Coaching Students in The Development of Basic Skills (Reading, Writing, Math, Spelling, etc.)

_____ Percent of Class Time Devoted to Questions and Discussions Related to Information Previously Presented in Class, But Is Not Merely A Review of Information (Teacher and Students Ask Questions, Probe For Understanding, Relate Previously Learned Concepts)

If "Thinking" And "Problem Solving" Skills Became An Even More Important Focus of Instruction, What Would Need To Be Changed In Marketing Education? (Check All That Apply and Briefly State Why)

____ Nothing:_____

____ Teaching Methods:_____

____ Tasks and Competency Statements:_____

____ The Way Exams are Written:_____

____ Other (Please Specify):_____

Concentrate For a Minute On Your Skills As a Teacher. Then, List What You Feel Would Be The Two Most Important Factors You Would Need To Work On If You Were Expected To Improve The Manner In Which Your Teaching Resulted in Improved "Thinking" and "Problem Solving" Skills For Students. Please List Those Two Items Below and Comment On Why You Selected Them.

1._____-

2._____ -

THANK YOU FOR HELPING WITH THIS SURVEY!

APPENDIX B

POPULATION DESCRIPTION/DEMOGRAPHICS

Sex: Female- 15 (75%) Male: 6 (25%)

Age:
20 - 25 Years: 1 (5%)
26 - 30 Years: 7 (35%)
31 - 40 Years: 4 (20%)
41 - 50 Years: 6 (30%)
51 - 60 Years: 3 (15%)

Years of Teaching Experience:
0 - 3 Years: 5 (25%)
4 - 6 Years: 4 (20%)
7 -10 Years: 2 (10%)
11-15 Years: 6 (30%)

Years if Marketing Education Teaching Experience:
0 - 3 Years: 7 (35%)
4 - 6 Years: 6 (30%)
7 -10 Years: 5 (25%)
11-15 Years: 3 (15%)

Undergraduate Courses Completed in Marketing (Marketing Titles)

5 (25%)	None	4 (20%)	Four
4 (20%)	One	0 (0%)	Five
3 (15%)	Two	0 (0%)	Six
4 (20%)	Three	1 (5%)	Over Six

16-20 Years: 3 (15%)
21-30 Years: 1 (5%)

An Assessment of Instructor Behaviors
in
a Graduate Satellite Entrepreneurship Course

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ABSTRACT

An Assessment of Instructor Behaviors
in
a Graduate Satellite Entrepreneurship Course

Le Vene A. Olson

The purpose of the study was to assess instructor behaviors in a satellite transmitted graduate course in Entrepreneurship during the Spring Semester, 1989. The means for instructor behaviors listed as (1) Course Organization was 3.7, (2) Content of the Course was 4.0 and (3) Presentations was 3.7 on a scale of 1 to 5.

The results indicate that research is needed to determine the (1) correlation between instructor behaviors and instructor effectiveness, (2) efficacy of various teaching methods, (3) content of faculty development for instructors and (4) most effective and efficient methods of providing faculty development services to instructors who deliver courses via satellite.

INTRODUCTION

Marshall University was granted state-wide responsibility for graduate programs in vocational and technical education and undergraduate technical education certification in 1969. The initial emphasis was on meeting the certification needs in technical education and providing a limited number of master's degree courses. Master's degrees were later approved in adult education, marketing education, vocational administration and business education. On-campus bachelor's degrees were also introduced in marketing education and business education.

Most of the graduate courses are scheduled and conducted by full-time professors on site throughout the state. The course configuration in terms of meeting times and days is adjusted to meet the needs of students registered for the course. Some independent study and field experience courses are provided and applied to degree programs. But most of the classes consist of traditional lecture, presentations and discussion with the instructor managing the learning environment and content.

With the advent of interactive video and satellite technology, interest in distance learning has increased. Instructors feel the pressure of using interactive video and satellite technology yet are reluctant to pursue this delivery system. Instructors question the level of professional support available to them and their own on-screen expertise in delivering courses via satellite. Their concern revolves around appropriate instructor behaviors in the areas of course organization, content of the course and the on-screen presentation.

Background

During the fall of 1988, the State Department of Education, Marshall University and the West Virginia Institute of Technology entered into an interagency agreement to broadcast an entrepreneurship course for vocational teachers throughout West Virginia. Individuals involved in planning the course were:

Clarence Burdette, Deputy State Superintendent of Schools
Adam Sponaugle, Assistant State Superintendent of Schools
Gene Coulson, Coordinator, Marketing Education and Entrepreneurship
Nolan Browning, Chair and Assistant Professor at West Virginia Tech
Lee Olson, Chair and Professor at Marshall University

The State Department of Education initiated the agreement, provided coordination and funded the cost of the course, (satellite time, consultants and instructional materials). Gene Coulson provided coordination for the course and served as the seminar leader. Lee Olson was responsible for arranging graduate course credit from Marshall University and Nolan Browning was responsible for arranging undergraduate course credit from West Virginia

Institute of Technology. Lee Olson and Nolan Browning requested and received approval for student fee waivers from the West Virginia Board of Regents.

The State Department of Education contracted with the Educational Network (EdNet) to broadcast the course. EdNet is funded by the West Virginia Board of Regents and located on the campus of West Virginia State College. The satellite entrepreneurship course consists of broadcasts covering the following topics:

1. Entrepreneurship Characteristics
2. Personal Assessment
3. Identifying Opportunities
4. Risks of Business Ownership
5. Types of Enterprises
6. The Business Plan
7. Forms of Ownership
8. Marketing, Market Information
9. Location
10. Buy/Lease
11. Layout
12. Business Records
13. Promotion
14. Planning
15. Managing
16. Government Regulations
17. Taxes and Licenses
18. Personnel Management

Registration for the course and an orientation lesson on entrepreneurship were scheduled at four of the many downlink sites throughout the State at the beginning of the semester. Two seminars were also scheduled at these sites during the semester. Students were provided with information concerning course expectations and the two scheduled examinations. Students were furnished with copies of the booklets (Ashmore, 1988) that they were to use in teaching a ten-hour entrepreneurship course as a part of the college course requirements.

Guest presenters were selected for each broadcast session. The broadcasts were scheduled from 6:00 to 8:00 p.m. every Monday except when the seminars were scheduled. The course was broadcast on Galaxy II, transponder 9. Gene Coulson coordinated the activities at the broadcast site at the West Virginia State College campus. Lee Olson and Nolan Browning attended both broadcast site sessions and receiver site sessions to monitor the course.

EdNet suggests the following formats for satellite broadcast courses:

Lecture: One person on camera with a specific message in which liberal use is made of visuals such as, charts, lists, definitions, graphs, maps, etc.

Workshop: One or more individuals on camera who interact with students in the audience or with each other.

Interview: Either spontaneous or staged question and answer session in the studio or taped at another site.

Panel: Experts are interviewed by the instructor and/or students in the studio.

Documentary: The instructor takes the students on a tour and provides the narration.

Demonstration: The instructor provides a narrative report while demonstrating concepts and principles.

Dramatization: Individuals role play to a script.

The lecture method of presentation was the primary vehicle for providing students with the information needed to achieve the course objectives. The presenters used a variety of visuals and referred to the course guide (New enterprises, 1987) which each student purchased for the course. The last one/half hour of the broadcast was devoted to receiving telephone calls on the 800 number telephone line and interacting with students registered throughout the state.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to assess the degree of frequency of preferred instructor behaviors in a satellite transmitted graduate course in Entrepreneurship for Vocational Teachers across the state of West Virginia. Results of the study will be used for instructional analysis and improvement.

Current literature does not adequately address preferred instructor behavior when courses are delivered via satellite. Typically, only the following type of information is provided to instructors:

1. Speaking voice - natural, conversational
2. Eye contact - look into the lens
3. Avoid distracting mannerisms and vocal habits
4. Look for cues from the director
5. Avoid big sweeping gestures, move gradually
6. Consider clothing color and design

Other behaviors used to identify what instructors are doing in their classrooms are included in an instrument developed by Murray (The Teaching Professor, 1988). These behaviors are listed below:

Clarity: method used to explain concepts and principles

Gives several examples of each concept
Uses concrete everyday examples to explain concepts and principles
Fails to define new or unfamiliar terms
Repeats difficult ideas several times
Stresses most important points by pausing, speaking slowly, raising voice, and so on
Uses graphs or diagrams to facilitate explanation
Points out practical applications of concepts
Answers students' questions thoroughly
Suggests ways of memorizing complicated ideas
Writes key terms on blackboard or overhead screen
Explains subject matter in familiar colloquial language

Enthusiasm: use of non-verbal behavior to solicit student interest

Speaks in a dramatic or expressive way
Moves about while lecturing
Gestures with hands or arms
Exhibits facial gestures or expressions
Avoid eye contact with students
Walks up aisles beside students
Gestures with head or body
Tells jokes or humorous anecdotes
Read lecture verbatim from prepared notes or text
Smiles or laughs while teaching
Shows distracting mannerisms

Interaction: techniques used to foster students' class participation

Encourages students' questions and comments during lectures
Criticizes students when they make errors
Praises students for good ideas
Asks questions of individual students
Asks questions of class as a whole
Incorporates students' ideas into lecture
Presents challenging, thought-provoking ideas
Uses a variety of media and activities in class
Asks rhetorical questions

Organization: ways of organizing or structuring subject matter

Uses headings and subheadings to organize lectures
Puts outline of lecture on blackboard or overhead screen
Clearly indicates transition from one topic to the next
Gives preliminary overview of lecture at beginning of class
Explains how each topic fits into the course as a whole
Begins class with a review of topics covered last time
Periodically summarizes points previously made

Pacing: rate of information presentation, efficient use of time

Dwells excessively on obvious points
Digresses from major theme of lecture
Covers very little material in class sessions
Asks if students understand before proceeding to next topic
Sticks to the point in answering students' questions

Disclosure: course requirements and grading criteria

Advises students as to how to prepare for tests or exams
Provides sample exam questions
Tells students exactly what is expected of them on tests, essays or assignments
States objectives of each lecture
Reminds students of test dates or assignment deadlines
States objectives of course as a whole

Speech: characteristics of voice relevant to classroom teaching

Stutters, mumbles or slurs works
Speaks at appropriate volume
Speaks clearly
Speaks at appropriate pace
Says "um" or "ah"
Voice lacks proper modulation (speaks in monotone)

Rapport: quality of interpersonal relations with students

Addresses individual students by name
Announces availability for consultation outside of class
Offers to help students with problems
Shows tolerance of other points of view
Talks with students before or after class

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The procedures used in the study and described in this section include population, instrumentation and research design.

Population

The study includes students who registered at Marshall University for graduate credit in the satellite entrepreneurship course (N=70) during the Spring Semester, 1989. Additional data will be collected later from both graduate students and undergraduate students (N=75) registered in the course during the Spring Semester, 1989.

Instrumentation

The instrument was adapted by the researcher based on an instrument researched and developed by Harry Murray (The Teaching Professor, 1988). The one-page instrument lists instructor behaviors related to:

1. Organization - structuring of the subject matter
2. Content - information included in presentations
3. Presentations - methods used to explain content

Graduate students were asked to assess the guest presenters specific behaviors during the satellite broadcasts. They were asked to assess overall behaviors or the average for all presentations. For each specific instructor behavior listed, they circled the number which indicates their judgment of its frequency. They used the following rating scale: 1 = almost never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = almost always.

Research Design

Each student who registered for graduate credit in the entrepreneurship course was mailed an assessment instrument to be completed anonymously and returned by mail to the researcher. Students were asked to rate each instructor behavior listed under organization (11 items), content (9 items) and presentations (15 items). The arithmetic mean for each item was determined and the overall arithmetic mean for all items in each of the three categories was calculated.

FINDINGS

This section contains the results from an analysis of the responses from the population surveyed. The results are reported in terms of the arithmetic mean derived from the responses returned to the researcher (n = 25).

Purpose

The purpose of the study is to assess the degree of frequency of preferred instructor behaviors in a satellite delivered graduate course in Entrepreneurship for Vocational Teachers across the state of West Virginia.

Results

The arithmetic means for instructor behaviors as perceived and reported by graduate students follows.

Course Organization: structuring of the subject matter

	Instructor Behavior	Mean
1.	Objectives clearly indicated for each broadcast	4.2
2.	Presentations demonstrated organization	4.1
3.	Recent developments were presented	3.9
4.	Presentations were focused, not too general	3.5
5.	Students' background was considered	3.3
6.	Difficult terms and concepts were explained	4.0
7.	Presenters did not digress from main topic	3.5
8.	Presenters summarized main points	4.0
9.	Various visual materials were used	3.4
10.	Overview of lectures provided at the beginning	3.6
11.	Periodically summarized points previously made	3.6

Content of the Course: information included in presentations

	Instructor Behavior	Mean
1.	Presenters appeared to be well prepared	4.2
2.	Information was accurate	4.1
3.	Content was related to social context	3.7
4.	Presenters provided practical examples	3.9
5.	Presenters had broad mastery of subject	4.1
6.	Presented up-to-date developments	4.0
7.	Demonstrated competence in their field	4.1
8.	Displayed a working knowledge of the content	4.0
9.	Several examples applied to each concept	3.5

Presentations: methods used to explain content

	Instructor Behavior	Mean
1.	Presentations were clear and understandable	4.0
2.	Presentations were stimulating	3.0
3.	Presenters were articulate	3.8
4.	Presenters were enthusiastic	3.8
5.	Use of humor was positive and appropriate	3.8
6.	Presentations were neither too formal nor too casual	4.1
7.	Clear, appropriate instructions were provided	3.8
8.	Difficult ideas repeated several times	3.4
9.	Most important points were stressed	3.7
10.	Used graphs or diagrams to facilitate explanation	3.2
11.	Subject matter explained in familiar language	4.1
12.	Gestured with hands or arms	3.3
13.	Exhibited facial gestures or expressions	3.6
14.	Smiled or laughed while teaching	3.8
15.	Responded to distractions effectively	4.0

The overall arithmetic means for the three categories of instructor behaviors are listed below.

1. Course Organization: structuring of the subject matter ($\bar{x} = 3.7$)

2. Content: information included in presentation ($\bar{x} = 4.0$)

3. Presentation: methods used to explain content ($\bar{x} = 3.7$)

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions are based on data obtained through the use of the Instructor Behaviors Inventory. The conclusions are confined to populations similar to those in the study. Generalizations are also confined to similar satellite broadcast courses. The conclusions suggested within the limitations of the study are as follows:

1. The mean for instructor behaviors listed in the category designated as Course Organization was 3.7. The means for the eleven items ranged from 3.3 to 4.2.

2. The mean for instructor behaviors listed in the category designated as Content of the Course was 4.0. The means for the nine items ranged from 3.5 to 4.2.

3. The mean for instructor behaviors listed in the category designated as Presentations was 3.7. The means for the fifteen items ranged from 3.0 to 4.1.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations seem warranted from the findings and conclusions:

1. Research is needed to determine the correlation between instructor behaviors and instructor effectiveness in satellite broadcast courses.

2. Research is needed to determine the efficacy of various teaching methods in satellite broadcast courses.

3. Research is needed to determine the content of faculty development for instructors who deliver courses via satellite.

4. Research is needed to determine the most effective and efficient methods of providing faculty development services to instructors who deliver courses via satellite.

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